

machine code applications for the ZX spectrum

expert machine code techniques

david laine



Spectrum Machine Code Applications contains advanced machine code routines to deal with problems such as floating point numbers, output to the screen and animated graphics. All the routines are fully explained and annotated.

Through the application of the host of routines presented the author explains how successful machine code routines are written, tested and used in practical applications.

This is not another introductory book on machine code but an insight into the way a professional machine code programmer looks at the Spectrum.

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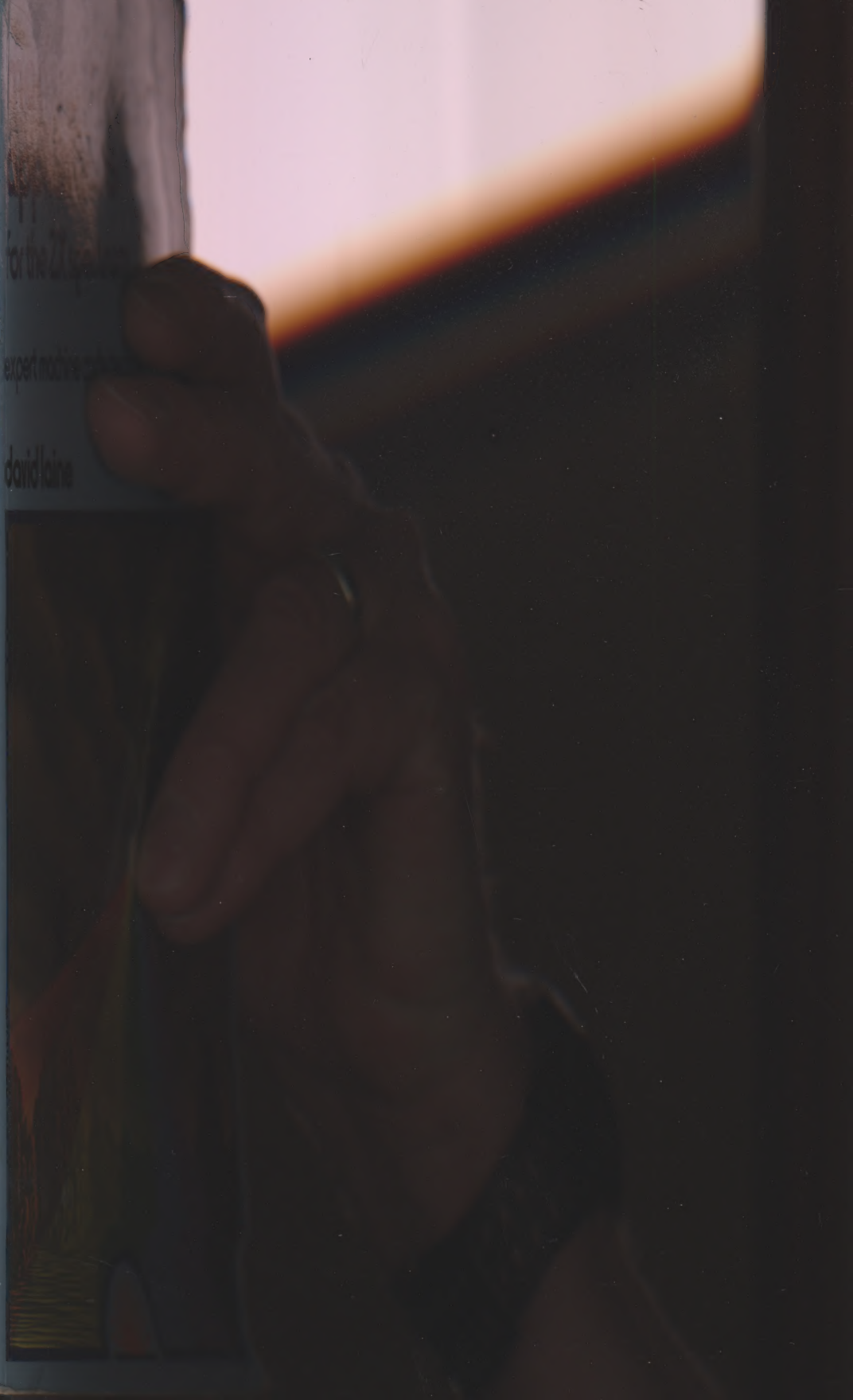
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DAVID LAINE

SPECTRUM MACHINE CODE APPLICATIONS

SUNSHINE



**machine code
applications
for the ZX spectrum**

expert machine code techniques

david laine

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Binary coded decimal; modifications; multiple entry; recursion; machine code and the assembler; code do's and don'ts

CHAPTER I

Introduction

To the women in my life, living and dead, without whom I would not have had the strength or encouragement to create the book. Also to my colleagues in London and Malvern who showed me how to go about it.

“Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested; that is, some books are to be read only in parts; others to be read but curiously; and some few to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention”.

Of Studies

Francis Bacon 1561 – 1626



CHAPTER 1

Introduction

This book is not intended for the absolute beginner, but for someone who has used machine code programs from books or magazines and feels the urge to try his or her hand.

To those of you who are still interested, this book is not a thesis on the instruction code or the internal operations of the Spectrum. If you do not already own one, you will need to obtain a book which explains how the Z80 functions — most things I shall explain, but some things will be omitted through over familiarity or because I did not set out to detail them. I do include a synopsis of the available instructions and their execution times but have not touched on peripheral programming, the interrupt vector register nor the refresh register. My purpose is to present an introduction to machine code programs which can interface with BASIC, which I assume that you already know thoroughly.

Why should you use machine code?

For total freedom from the restraints of BASIC and an increase in speed. I have included an array sort routine (Chapter 10) which is about 125 times faster than its BASIC equivalent (and then show how you can double that). On the other hand the errors make themselves known that much faster.

For the machine code programs I have used a simple assembler by Picturesque.

Always remember that if you can see a logical way of solving a problem then that problem can be solved. The hardest thing for the beginner is sticking it out, the resolution to persevere until the last error is removed and the code runs correctly.

Do not, to begin with, attempt more than one or two hours at a stretch, and do keep notes on your errors. After a few weeks the worst of the nerves will be over and you will have become well acquainted with machine code.

For any problem, write down what you want to do and then draw flow diagrams. If you can't do a bit of the problem put it in a little box and carry on with the main problem; later go back and work on the boxes as if they were full grown problems in their own right.

Finally, never forget: the true programmer exists in one of two states: the depths of despair because the program is not working, or the highest elation because it is known why the program is not working.



CHAPTER 2

About Programming

'An engineer was called from afar; the machine would not work; he pondered the problem; he called for a hammer; he dealt the thing a resounding blow; it worked. Much later the bill arrived:

Transport and travel	£50.00
Hitting the machine	£00.01
Knowing what and where to hit	£500.00
Total	£550.01 (+ VAT).'

(Modernised Apocryphal)

Programming is far more an art than a science. Science is involved, for the rules imposed by the machine code instructions and any operating system admit of no flexibility. But the presence of the finest ingredients hardly implies great cuisine if the cook is a gorilla — on the other hand, a great cook can conjure a feast from the most unpromising beginnings.

There is constant interplay amongst eight things:

- Reliability
- Simplicity
- Testability
- Speed
- Size
- Documentation
- Program environment
- Program specification

Reliability

Dijkstra's conjecture:

If a program has N instructions, each having a probability p of doing the right thing, then the probability of the program doing the right thing is of the order of p^N .

If the program is to loop L times, then the probability is of the order of p^{NL} , which means that if p is not equal to 1 then the program is not worth running.

Every fault in a program ought to be investigated, explained and corrected. A faulty program is not worth running, a misplaced comma has cost millions before now.

Simplicity

There is no merit in making programs needlessly convoluted. The whole, no matter how complicated, can always be broken down into a few simple parts and these parts further reduced to simpler parts. I find that a very good way to test a program is to draw lines on a listing from jump instructions to the relevant labels. The results are usually self evident.

Testability

Much has been written about testability; all I shall say here is that simplicity of structure makes testing that much easier. You can have more combinations of bit pattern in a mere 40 bytes than there are atoms in the universe.

Speed

Each instruction takes a finite time to execute and there are always several possible instruction mixes to produce the same result. If you have a piece of program which seems to be slow to produce results, examine it for loops within loops within loops. Improvements in speed may require changes in data structure which may mean that the program becomes bigger.

Size

'Anybody can build a bridge, but only an engineer can, just.'

The size of a program is the sum of its two parts — the instructions and the data area.

Data should never be written into and be part of a program except (perhaps) in test programs. The program should be given a pointer to the location of its data and be allowed to work from there.

The number of instructions can nearly always be reduced. The more straightforward the program construction the easier and more effective the reduction will be.

Documentation

A program or subroutine without proper and adequate documentation might as well not exist. You can retain sufficient memory of a piece of a program for about three months to prompt you, with a listing, as to how and why and what. Beyond those three months the program becomes a liability.

Documentation does not need to become a magnum opus, just:

- List of entry conditions
 - a) registers
 - b) special locations
- List of exit conditions
 - a) registers
 - b) special locations
 - c) preserved registers
 - d) flags set

Brief description of the function

These, together with a listing and flow diagram should be kept in a good note book with stiff covers. If you can also keep the original source code on tape so much the better. I use message cassettes myself, they seem to do quite well.

Program environment

A fancy way of saying what extra peripherals you have beyond the TV screen. You must always tailor your output to suit. What looks impressive in flashing, scintillating colour will look very different on a ZX printer.

Program specification

This is left to the end because everything else affects and is affected by it. It may be necessary to go round the whole loop several times to arrive at an acceptable compromise.

There are particular aspects which must be considered if you are producing a program for someone else:

- a) Do you understand what he says he wants?
- b) Is what he says he wants a true expression of what he needs? Remember that you and he have to have a common appreciation of the problem to be solved.
- c) Can you see the problem as one of a more general sort that you have already solved, or, more generally, have you solved something like it already? Is this problem going to be the first of a series? Would it be better to write a more general program for future needs? For example, given the need to integer arithmetic extending over seven bytes, might it not be better to devise general solutions extending over N bytes and then set N to 7 for the specific case?
- d) If the problem is a large one, time spent designing the data base can repay vast dividends in time needed to extract data. All the data referring to a major item should be stored together so that it can be got at through a single page register. Different settings of the page register are then used to point to different data items.

- e) When you have a solution scheme worked out you will also have some questions to ask, so go back to a) above and start again.

CHAPTER 3

Instructions

The instruction codes and their actions on the flags are given condensed form in **Figure 3.1** and **Figure 3.2** together with their allowed address combinations. These tables are no substitute for the books mentioned in Chapter 1.

Form of **Figure 3.1**

column	description
1	operation mnemonic
2	symbolic operation
3	allowed address combinations (where two addresses are allowed the two groups of possibles are separated by a space).

The numbers under some of the addresses indicate the execution times of the associated operation (in computer clock cycles).

N	indicates that a 1 byte value may be used
NN	indicates that a 2 byte value may be used
(NN)	indicates that the address of a byte is to be used
d	is a 1 byte page offset to be used with a page register
DISP	is the displacement to a nearby instruction

The stack

The stack is a concertina-like list which stores items in a first-in first-out (FIFO) form. It is like a pile of cards — the first one you place on top is the first to be removed, but to confuse matters it is held in memory 'upside-down'. The top of the stack (ie where the last item added is) is at a lower address than the bottom (ie where the very first item lies). The Stack Pointer SP is a 16-bit register which points to the address of the last item on the stack.

Normally the stack is used for storing return addresses from subroutines, in the form of a pair of bytes, and a CALL puts a pair on the stack (and decrements SP by two), and a RET will remove it (and increment SP by two). However, there are two other types of instructions that use the stack — PUSH and POP. When a 16-bit register is PUSHed

Figure 3.1a

CODE	OPERATION	ADDRESSES - CONDITION CODES - REGISTERS AND EXECUTION TIMES (CLOCK CYCLES)
ADC	$A \leftarrow A + S + C_0$	A $\xrightarrow{4} A B C D E H L N (HL) \xrightarrow{7} (IX+d) \xrightarrow{19} (IY+d)$
	$HL \leftarrow HL + S + C_0$	HL $\xrightarrow{15} BC DE HL SP$
ADD	$A \leftarrow A + S$	A $\xrightarrow{4} A B C D E H L N (HL) \xrightarrow{7}$
	$HL \leftarrow HL + S$	HL $\xrightarrow{11} BC DE HL SP$
	$IX \leftarrow IX + S$	IX $\xrightarrow{11} BC DE IX SP$
	$IY \leftarrow IY + S$	IY $\xrightarrow{11} BC DE IY SP$
AND	$A \leftarrow A \& S$	$\xrightarrow{4} A B C D E H L N (HL) \xrightarrow{7} (IX+d) \xrightarrow{19} (IY+d)$
BIT	$Z_f \leftarrow b + S$	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 $\xrightarrow{5} A B C D E H L (HL) \xrightarrow{12} (IX+d) \xrightarrow{20} (IY+d)$
	STACK PC $PC \leftarrow NN$	$\xrightarrow{17} C NC Z NZ MI PI PE PO$ NN (0 # NOT OBEYED) NN 17
CCF	$C_0 \leftarrow \bar{C}_0$	
CP	FLAGS $\leftarrow A - S$	$\xrightarrow{4} A B C D E H L N (HL) \xrightarrow{7} (IX+d) \xrightarrow{19} (IY+d)$ SEE ALSO CPD CPDR F3.1d CPI CPRI
CPL	$A \leftarrow \bar{A}$	$\xrightarrow{4}$
DAA	RESULT ADJUST FOR USE WITH BCD ARITHMETIC	
DEC	$S \leftarrow S - 1$	$\xrightarrow{4} A B C D E H L N (HL) \xrightarrow{6} BC DE HL SP \xrightarrow{10} IX IY (HL) \xrightarrow{11} (IX+d) \xrightarrow{23} (IY+d)$
DI	DISABLE INTERRUPTS - SPECTRUM USES NON MASKABLE INTERRUPTS	
DJNZ	$B \leftarrow B - 1$	DISPLACEMENT IS OBEYED B NOT OBEYED
	$B \neq 0$ JR NN	
	$B = 0$ NOP	
EI	ENABLE INTERRUPTS - SPECTRUM USES NON-MASKABLE INTERRUPTS	
EX	$(SP) \rightleftharpoons S$	(SP) $\xrightarrow{23} HL IX IY$
	$AF \rightleftharpoons AF'$	AF $\xrightarrow{23} AF'$
	$DE \rightleftharpoons HL$	DE $\xrightarrow{23} HL$
EXX	$BC \rightleftharpoons BC'$	$\xrightarrow{4}$
	$DE \rightleftharpoons DE'$	
	$HL \rightleftharpoons HL'$	
HALT		
IM	SET INTERRUPT MODE	0 1 2 $\xrightarrow{6}$
IN	$S \leftarrow INPUT(C)$	$\xrightarrow{12} A B C D E H L$ (C)
	$A \leftarrow INPUT(N)$	A (N)
INC	$S \leftarrow S + 1$	$\xrightarrow{4} A B C D E H L N (HL) \xrightarrow{6} BC DE HL SP \xrightarrow{10} IX IY (HL) \xrightarrow{11} (IX+d) \xrightarrow{23} (IY+d)$

Figure 3.1b

JP	PC ← S PC ← S IF CC	(HL) (IX) (Y) NN ←4→ ←8→ ←10→ C NC Z NZ M PI PE PO ←10→ NN	
JR	PC ← PC + DISP PC ← PC + DISP IF CC	DISPLACEMENT ←12→ C NC Z NZ ←12→ OR 7 IF NOT OBEYED	ABS(DISP) ≤ 127 PC POINTS TO NEXT OF
LD	LOAD 1 ST ADDRESS WITH 2 ND ADDRESS	A ←7→ ←13→ ←14→ A B C D E H L ←4→ ←10→ A B C D E H L ←7→ ←9→ ←7→ ←9→ NN (NN) 10 → 20 IX IY NN (NN) 14 → 20 SP HL IX IY 6 → 10 (HL) A B C D E H L N ←7→ ←10→ (BC) (DE) (HL) A 7 (IX+d) (IY+d) A B C D E H L N ←19→ (NN) A B C D E H L IX IY SP 13 → 20 I/R A 9	SEE ALSO LDD LDDR FS,1d LDI LDIR
NEG	A ← -A	A	
NOP	NOTHING	+	
OR	A ← A OR S	A B C D E H L N (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ←7→ ←14→	
OUT	OUTPUT S TO ADDR. BC OUTPUT A TO ADDR. AN	(C) A B C D E H L ←12→ (N) A 11	SEE ALSO OUTD OTDR FS,1d OUTI OTIR
POP	READ FROM TOP OF STACK SP = SP + 2	A B C D E H L IX IY ←10→ ←14→	
PUSH	LOAD ON STACK SP = SP - 2	A B C D E H L IX IY ←10→ ←14→	
RES	S ₆ ← 0	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 A B C D E H L (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ←8→ ←5→ ←23→	
RET	POP PC OF STACK POP PC IF CC	10 C NC Z NZ M PI PE ←11→ OBEYED 5 NOT OBEYED	
RET I	RET W FROM INTERRUPT		
RETN	RET I FROM NON MASKABLE INTERRUPT		
RL	ROTATE LEFT	A B C D E H L (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ←8→ ←15→ ←23→	SEE FS,2 R1
RLA	ROTATE A LEFT	A	SEE FS,2 R1

Figure 3.1c

RLC	ROTATE RIGHT	A B C D E H L (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ← 8 * 15 * 23 →	SEE F3,2 R2
RLA	ROTATE A RIGHT	4	SEE F3,2 R2
RLD	ROTATE LEFT A AND (HL)	18 BCD A AND (HL) NIBBLES	SEE F3,2 R3
RR	ROTATE RIGHT	A B C D E H L (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ← 8 * 15 * 23 →	SEE F3,2 R4
RRA	ROTATE A RIGHT	4	SEE F3,2 R4
RRC	ROTATE RIGHT	A B C D E H L (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ← 8 * 15 * 23 →	SEE F3,2 R5
RRCA	ROTATE A RIGHT	4	SEE F3,2 R5
RRD	ROTATE RIGHT A AND (HL)	18 BCD A AND (HL) NIBBLES	SEE F3,2 R6
RST	STACK PC PC ← S	0 1 6 24 32 40 48 56 ← 11 →	FOR JUMPS TO HEAD OF ROM
SBC	A ← A - S - C ₉	A A B C D E H L N (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ← 4 * 7 * 19 →	
	HL ← HL - S - C ₉	HL BC DE HL SP ← 15 →	
SCF	SET C ₉	4	
SET	S ₀ ← 1	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 A B C D E H L (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ← 8 * 15 * 23 →	
SLA	SHIFT LEFT ARITHMETIC	A B C D E H L (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ← 8 * 15 * 23 →	SEE F3,2 S1
SRA	SHIFT RIGHT ARITHMETIC	A B C D E H L (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ← 8 * 15 * 23 →	SEE F3,2 S2
SRL	SHIFT RIGHT LOGICAL	A B C D E H L (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ← 8 * 15 * 23 →	SEE F3,2 S3
SUB	A ← A - S	A B C D E H L N (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ← 4 * 7 * 19 →	
XOR	A ← A ⊕ S	A B C D E H L N (HL) (IX+d) (IY+d) ← 4 * 7 * 19 →	

Figure 3.1d

BLOCK AND REPEAT LOAD AND COMPARE			
CPD	FLAGS ← A-(HL) HL ← HL-1 BC ← BC-1	COMPARISON CP	ALL COMPARISON INSTRUCTIONS LEAVE THE A REGISTER UNALTERED BUT JUST SET THE FLAGS ACCORDING TO THE SUBTRACTION. D OR I REFERS TO DECREMENTING OR INCREMENTING THE CONTENTS OF HL. IN ALL CASES THE BC REGISTER PAIR IS DECREMENTED
CPI	HL ← HL+1 BC ← BC-1		
CPIR	HL ← HL-1 BC ← BC-1	REPEAT UNTIL A=(HL) OR BC=∅	
CPDR	HL ← HL+1 BC ← BC-1	REPEAT UNTIL A=(HL) OR BC=∅	
LDD	(DE) ← (HL) DE ← DE-1 HL ← HL-1 BC ← BC-1	LOAD	
LDI	DE ← DE+1 HL ← HL+1 BC ← BC-1		
LDDR	DE ← DE-1 HL ← HL-1 BC ← BC-1	REPEAT UNTIL BC=∅	DECREMENT AFTER EXECUTION
LDIR	DE ← DE+1 HL ← HL+1 BC ← BC-1	REPEAT UNTIL BC=∅	DECREMENT AFTER EXECUTION
BLOCK AND REPEAT INPUT/OUTPUT			
IND	(HL) ← (C) B ← B-1 HL ← HL-1	BC CONTAINS (INPUT) PORT ADDRESS, HL CONTAINS DATA ADDRESS	
INI	B ← B-1 HL ← HL+1		
INDR	B ← B-1 HL ← HL-1	REPEAT UNTIL B=∅	DECREMENT BEFORE EXECUTION
INIR	B ← B-1 HL ← HL+1	REPEAT UNTIL B=∅	DECREMENT BEFORE EXECUTION
OUTD	(C) ← (HL) B ← B-1 HL ← HL-1	BC CONTAINS (OUTPUT) PORT ADDRESS, HL CONTAINS DATA ADDRESS	
OUTI	B ← B-1 HL ← HL+1		
OTDR	B ← B-1 HL ← HL-1	REPEAT UNTIL B=∅	DECREMENT BEFORE EXECUTION
OTIR	B ← B-1 HL ← HL+1	REPEAT UNTIL B=∅	DECREMENT BEFORE EXECUTION

Figure 3.2

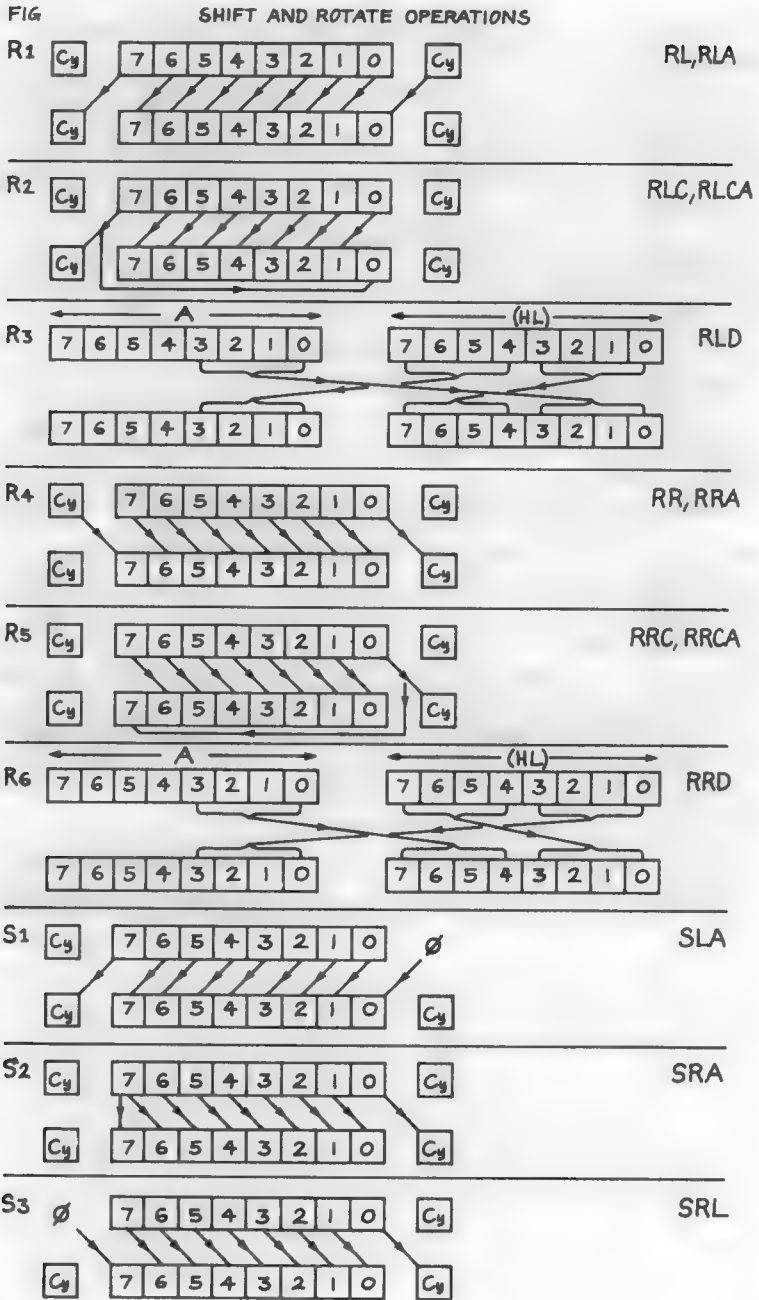


Figure 3.3

FLAG SETTING INSTRUCTIONS		FLAGS (IN F REGISTER)							COMMENTS
		S	Z	H	P/V	N	C _y		
<u>ARITHMETIC</u> 8 BIT	ADD A, r; ADC A, r	*	*	*	V	∅	*	FLAGS SET FOR A-r FLAGS SET FOR A=-A	
	SUB r; SBC r	*	*	*	V	1	*		
	CP r	*	*	*	V	1	*		
	NEG	*	*	*	V	1	*		
	16 BIT	ADD				∅	*		
		ADC	*	*		V	∅		*
SBC		*	*		V	1	*		
<u>LOGICAL</u>	AND r	*	*	1	P	∅	∅	A = \bar{A}	
	OR r; XOR r	*	*	∅	P	∅	∅		
	CPL			1		1			
<u>ROTATE</u>	RLA; RRA			∅		∅	*	ROTATE A	
	RLCA; RRCA			∅		∅	*	ROTATE A AND C _y	
	RL r; RR r	*	*	∅	P	∅	*	ROTATE R	
	RLC r; RRC r	*	*	∅	P	∅	*	ROTATE R AND C _y	
<u>SHIFT</u>	SLA r; SRA r	*	*	∅	P	∅	*		
	SRL r	*	*	∅	P	∅	*		
<u>BIT TEST</u>	BIT b, r		*	1		∅		BIT B OF r PLACED IN Z	
<u>I/O TRANSFER</u>	IN r, (c)	*	#	∅	P	∅		BLOCK I/O \$ = ∅ IF B ≠ ∅ \$ = 1 IF B = ∅	
	INI; IND	\$	*			1			
	OUTI; OUTD	\$	*			1			
	INIR; INDR	\$	1			1			
	OTIR; OTDR	\$	1			1			
<u>BLOCK</u> MOVE	LDI; LDP			∅	#	∅		# SET IF BC = 1	
	LDIR; LDDR			∅	∅	∅			
SEARCH	CPI; CPD		\$	*	#	1		\$ SET IF A = (HL)	
	CPIC; CPDR		\$	*	#	1		# SET IF BC = 1	
<u>OTHERS</u>	CCF					∅	\$	C _y = \bar{C}_y	
	DAA	*	*	*	P		*	ADJUST RESULT TO CONTINUE BCD ARITHMETIC	
	DEC r	*	*	*	V	1			
	INC r	*	*	*	V	∅			
	LD A, I	*	*	∅	\$	∅		THE INTERRUPT ENABLE FLIP FLOP IS MOVED TO P/V	
	LD A, R	*	*	∅	\$	∅			
	RLD; RRD	*	*	∅	P	∅			
SCF			∅		∅	1	LEFT AND RIGHT BCD ROTATE		

NOTES ON THE TABLE

1. NO SYMBOL - NO ACTION
2. # UNSET
3. 1 SET
4. P P/V SET ACCORDING TO PARITY OF RESULT
5. V P/V SET AS A RESULT OF OVER-OR UNDER-FLOW
6. # MAY BE SET OR UNSET
7. b IS A BIT NUMBER ∅ (1) 7
8. r A SINGLE REGISTER OR A BYTE VALUE
9. \$ } SEE ADJACENT COMMENT
10. # }

its two bytes are put on the top of the stack, and SP decremented by two. The opposite is POP which places the values of the top two bytes on the stack into a 16-bit register. SP is then incremented by two.

Repeated PUSHing will eventually reduce SP until it starts to overwrite your program or data, and unfunny things will start to happen, usually resulting in a system reset.

As long as POPS and PUSHs are kept in step the SP pointer will not 'run away'; usually 200 or so bytes are sufficient but with deeply nested subroutines and more advanced programming than is dealt with in this book you will perhaps need more. Remember that the higher you set the head address of your program the less room there is for the stack.

If POP and PUSH become unbalanced over a subroutine then, in general, the subroutine cannot exit correctly (a very common beginner's problem). However, if on entry to the subroutine, you store the SP value in some address (which the stack is not going to over-write!), you can always exit correctly from the deepest level of nesting, by resetting SP from the stored value and executing a RET instruction, eg

```
GRAFS    LD    (ADDR),SP
          ..
          ..
EXIT     LD    HL,(ADDR)
          LD    SP,HL
          RET
```

Everything that was left on the stack still exists but is just abandoned and will be overwritten by subsequent PUSH operations.

CHAPTER 4

Number Representation

'When I use a word,' Humpty Dumpty said, in a rather scornful tone 'it means just what I choose it to mean — neither more nor less.'

'The question is,' said Alice, 'Whether you can make words mean so many different things.'

'The question is,' said Humpty Dumpty, 'which is to be master — that's all.'

(Alice through the Looking Glass)

Given the content of any byte very little can be said about it except its value. Its meaning depends on the programmer or program which gave the byte that particular value.

Example 1

If the byte is a copy of the F register (FLAGS) then you must refer to **Figure 3.3** and even then you may need to work back through the program to determine which operation on what data set a particular bit.

Example 2

It may be part of a Spectrum standard floating point number (see **Figure 4.1**). Before you can assign a meaning to the byte you must determine which of the five possible bytes it is.

Example 3

It may be one byte of a 16 bit integer — again which byte?

Example 4

It may be a genuine byte value such as an ASCII character code or a Spectrum token, in which case the meaning can be determined by inspection of **Figure 4.2**. Note that when and if you use an RS232/V24 type of interface you will almost certainly need to insert transmission control codes and may also be required to set or unset the MS bit of each ASCII character according to the parity required by the peripheral.

Figure 4.1

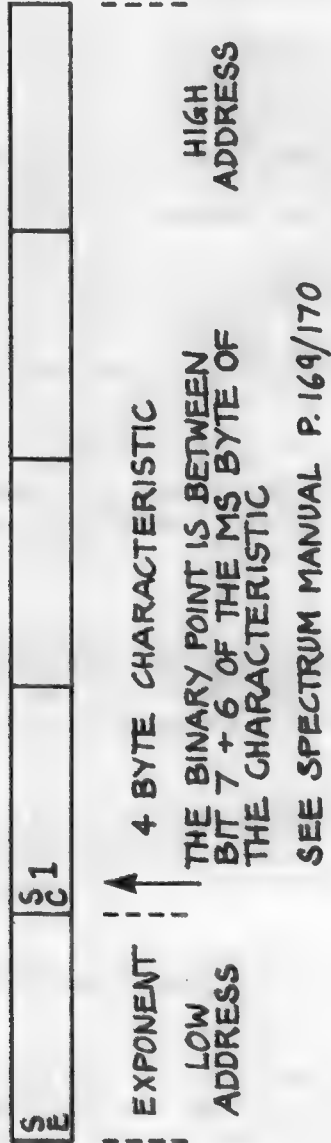
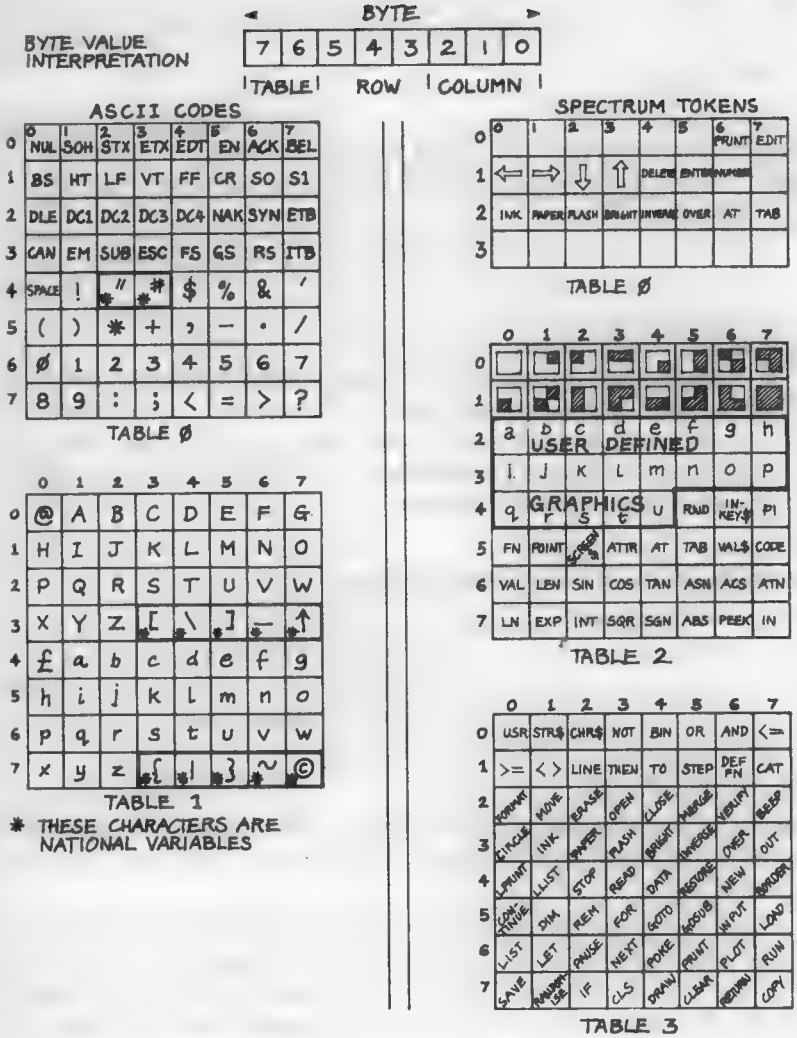


Figure 4.2



Example 5

It may be (part of) an instruction code. If you start off in the wrong place the result will be gibberish.

There is no way of knowing, from the byte alone, what it is. If, however, the location of the start of the machine code program can be determined the rest of the program follows logically and in running is all sorted out by the hardware.

Floating point numbers (see Figure 4.1)

Read the Spectrum manual pages 169–170. What follows is a note on manipulating fp numbers.

The Sign of the characteristic is in the lowest addressed byte.

When working with fp numbers, always adjust the size of the exponent such that the bit after the characteristic sign bit is the inverse of the sign bit; that is, the characteristic begins either 01 or 10, never 00 or 11.

To add or subtract fp numbers, first adjust the exponents to be the same (shift the characteristic of the lower fp number right as its exponent is increased) then add or subtract the characteristics as required and correct the exponent for over- or under-flow if need be. This shifting to equalise exponents is known as normalisation.

Multiplication and division of fp numbers

- 1 Don't, unless you have to.
- 2 If you must
 - a) add or subtract exponents
 - b) multiply or divide the characteristics
 - or c) get the BASIC to do it for you!

Data structures

Data structures can be as simple or complex, long or short, as you wish, can unravel and can find room to handle. Each set of problems has its own solutions.

Suppose that much alpha-numeric data has to be handled, we have A–z, A–Z, 0–9, space and punctuation. If we introduce a shift character to distinguish between upper and lower case and put digits in the opposite case to punctuation, then the whole can be squeezed into 40 separate codes. Now $40 * 40 * 40 = 64000$ and 16 bits in two bytes has a maximum value of 65535. For the price of some coding we can get three characters where there were only two before — an increase of 50% in the available storage.

Again there is another scheme: there are $26 * 26 = 676$ letter pair combinations, aa, ab, ac, . . . zx, zy, zz, by no means all of which exist in English (or any other language for that matter). It may well be that in a particular application, less than 256 such pairs exist; in such a case the

input may be coded at two letters per byte with a resulting doubling of the storage capacity.

If we are handling large arrays of numerical data, whose entries are mostly empty (the so-called sparse arrays) we may have to design techniques for handling the data, not as arrays, but in terms of the non null elements and their locations. This will be slow but at least we will be able to handle the problem.

Signed and unsigned arithmetic

Signed arithmetic uses the MS bit of the value to indicate the arithmetic sign of the remaining bits. In unsigned arithmetic you keep track of the signs of the values of the variables. Usually it suffices to ignore the sign bit as is done in addressing (but keep an eye on the carry flag).



CHAPTER 5

Addressing

Addressing refers to the method by which data or constants stored in memory are read into the Z80 registers, and is a very important concept. The Z80 has many modes, some more useful in certain applications than others.

Be very clear in your own mind whether you are using 8 or 16 bit variables. Addresses are always 16 bit values and refer either to a byte or the lower of the two bytes used for a 16 bit value (but remember that in the BASIC program area the Spectrum system has line numbers swapped around).

There are several methods of getting at data: some are outlined below:

Direct

The location is known and has a name or numerical value.

eg LD HL,(23626)	will put the contents of 23627/8 into the HL register pair.
LD A,(23627)	will put the contents of byte 23627 into the accumulator or A register.

Direct + fixed offset

At run time this is identical to the direct method.

eg LD B,(PHRED + 5)	PHRED is a value determined by the assembler at assembly time.
---------------------	----------------------------------------------------------------

With most assemblers the address can be generated from any mixture of labels and values together with + and - signs. Also a label may be assigned a value rather than having a value determined for it by the assembler.

Indirect

The address of the required data is held in some known location.

eg LD H1,(PHRED)	HL is loaded with the address.
LD B,(HL)	B loaded with the byte addressed by the content of HL.

Page addressing

Page addressing, also known as Indexed Addressing uses two 16 bit registers — IX and IY. A page in this context is an area of not more than 256 bytes whose head address is loaded as a 16 bit value in the IX (or IY) register. There are assumed to be several such pages, all laid out in the same order, each containing data for an individual item — see Chapter 10 for an example. Data is then handled by means of fixed offsets relative to the head of each page.

eg `LD A,(IX + 5)` will load A with the 6th byte of the page pointed to by the address currently held in IX.

The method becomes more transparent if the fixed offset is given a name indicating the contents. Consider processing examination results. Each student is given a page, organised thus:

BYTE NO.	CONTENTS	
0	} Student No.	
1		
2	Marks	Mathematics
3	...	English
4	...	Physics
5	...	
6		
7 ... etc.		

We can then code: `LD A,(IX + PHYSICS)` so long as we have let the assembler know that PHYSICS has the value 4. To load HL with the student's number we have to code:

`LD L,(IX + 0)` to load the low order byte
`LD H,(IX + 1)` to load the high order byte

To move on to the next student we need only add a suitable constant to the page register. Page 180 of the Spectrum manual says that the IY register should not be used, but this is not strictly true. Although its value should *never* be altered, it is always set to 23610, and it can be used to access some of the system variables. For example, to set bit 1 of FLAGS the instruction would be

`SET 1,(IY +)`

Multiple indirect

If we have access to only the address of the value, we have to repeat the process used to extract an indirect address. There is no theoretical limit to the depths to which one can sink in this process though I should consider it unreasonable to attempt more than three levels of descent.

Chaining (see Figure 5.1)

This is a method of linking (usually blocks of) data together so that a rapid search can be made. Chaining requires that each data item carries with it the address of one or more related data items. These addresses are known also as pointers. Chaining can be forward, backward or both together. The deletion of an item from a chain is accomplished by pointing around it, an item not pointed to does not exist.

It is usually necessary to produce a 'garbage' collection routine to reorder data and physically remove deleted entries from chained data.

Note that several independent chains can link through the same data (so long as pointer space is supplied).

The Spectrum BASIC program is a part forward chain. Each line carries what amounts to a pointer to the head of the next line. Forward searching is easy, backward searches (such as GOTO . . . a previous line number) are fresh searches from the beginning.

Computation of addresses (and instructions)

When working with a variety of addresses, it is sometimes tempting to construct the address (or instruction), enter it into the code and then obey it.

This technique is not to be recommended, but may be tolerated, especially where speed and size are of importance. I do use it and all I shall say is 'be careful'. Remember also that you cannot use the technique if the program is going to be loaded into a PROM or ROM.

Notes

- 1 Only use it in subroutines, never the 'main line' of a program.
- 2 On entry to the subroutine, be sure that you know what the state of any computed instruction will be. Never compute an instruction for 'next time round'.
- 3 Be very aware of how the assembler *you* use assembles the instructions that are modified — some instructions can be assembled in different ways:

eg LD HL,(NN) can be coded (hex)

2A-n1-n2

or EX-6B-n1-n2

Figure 5.1a

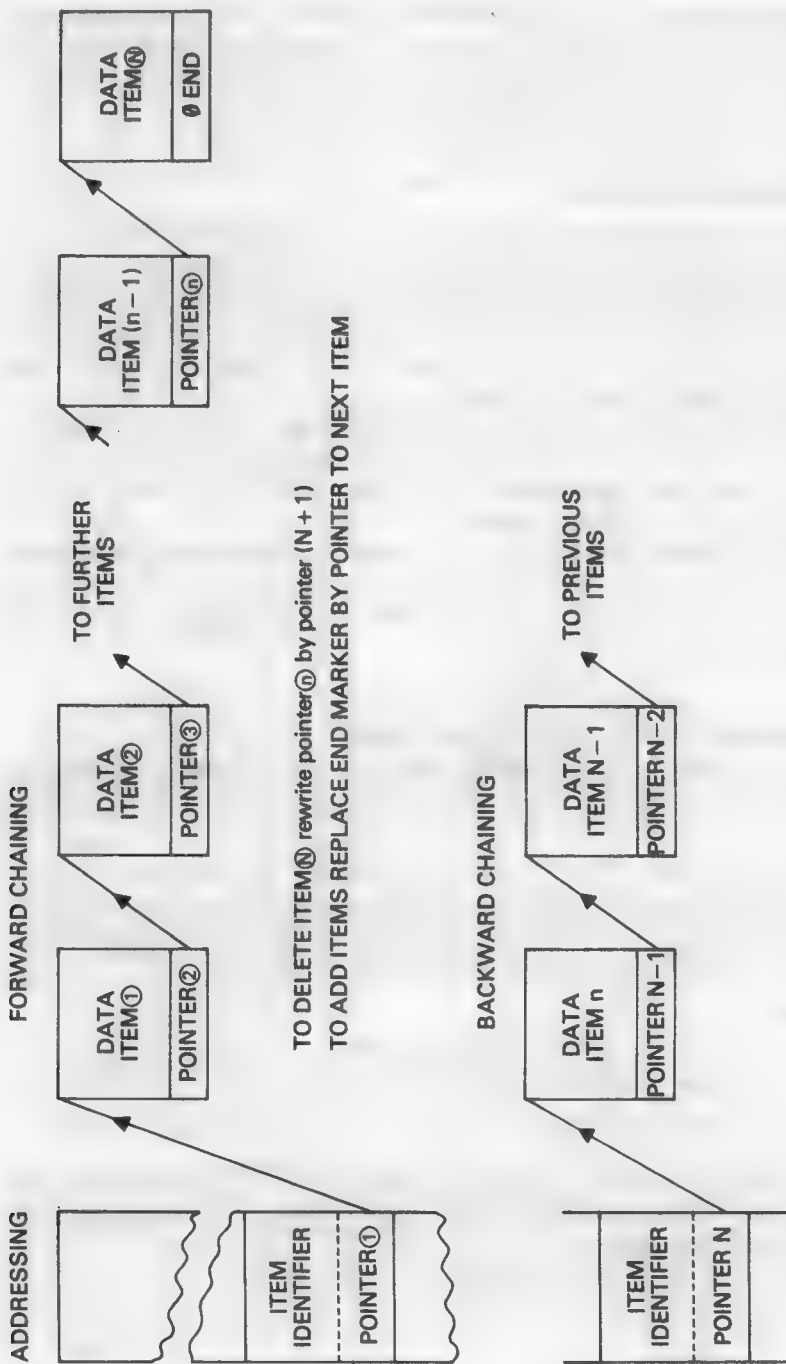
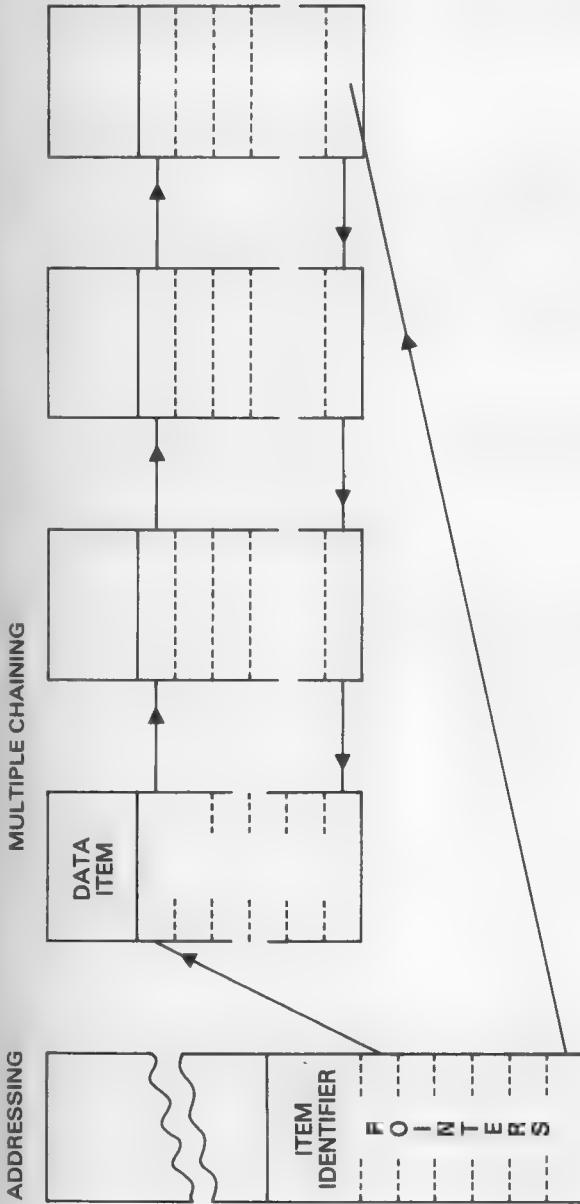


Figure 5.1b



(The code examples in this book, to the best of my knowledge, use an assembler which produces the shorter of two equivalent forms.)

- 4 If you label the instruction, then the label has the address value of the first byte.
- 5 Remember, when you document or publish the code, to draw particular attention to what you have done. Another person's assembler may use the other assembly option or you may change assembler.

CHAPTER 6

Simple Beginnings

Introduction

This chapter deals by example with two essential aspects of machine code programming; execution times for a piece of program and the passing of information into subroutines. I also attempt to give some insight into the way in which solutions develop. I regret that I know of no way in which years of experience can be grafted into the beginner. As you gain experience look back over your earlier efforts and wince, the more you wince the more you have learned.

Clearing the display buffer; an essay on execution times

An elementary routine to clear the 6144 bytes of the display buffer, starting at 16384.

My first thought was along the lines of:

	LD	BC,6144	1
	LD	HL,16384	2
CLRE	LD	A,0	3
	LD	(HL),A	4
	INC	HL	5
	DEC	BC	6
	LD	A,B	7
	OR	C	8
	JR	NZ,CLRE	9

which works, but is most inelegant.

Note, however:

- Lines 7, 8 and 9 as a means of testing $BC = 0$ since a double register DEC or INC operation affects no flags.
- Instructions 3 and 4 can be amalgamated; I forgot that LD (HL),0 is a valid byte instruction.

The loop 3/4 to 9 requires 37 clock cycles (see **Figure 3.1**) and is executed 6144 times to give a requirement of 227300 clock cycles. Can we do it faster?

Version 2

	LD	HL,16384	1
	LD	C,24	2
LIN3	LD	B,0	3
LIN4	LD	(HL),0	4
	INC	HL	5
	DJNZ	LIN4	6
	DEC	C	7
	JR	NZ,LIN3	8

The inner loop, the main time consumer in any such routine, requires $6144 * 29 = 178000$ clock cycles, which is some 78% of the requirement of the first attempt.

There are however problems if and when one wishes to generalise the solution which depends on 6144 being equal to $24 * 256$: and are B and C correctly set up for the DEC and JR operations?

We haven't come to the end of the road yet. What we have tacitly done is to load the same location into successive locations. Suppose we cleared location 0 and then moved location 0 into location 1, and then moved location 1 into location 2 etc. Put another way what happens if we used the LDIR operation:

LD	HL,16384	1
LD	DE,16385	2
LD	BC,6143	3
LD	(HL),0	4
LDIR		5

and everything is done by LDIR 6143 times at 21 clock cycles a time. The time is thus 129000 cycles, or 57% of the first attempt.

If we attempt to put all the variables into parameters and make a fully fledged subroutine out of this, to be fully general, we will have all the complexities of picking up the parameters. Just now this will be more trouble than it is worth.

With a minor change to line 4 we make a clear display subroutine CLRD (Listing 6.1) which we enter with $A = 0$ and record that all registers are destroyed.

Setting up the attributes area

A straight crib is in order here, just change the values assigned to HL, DE, and BC and give the routine a new name, SETA, which is entered with $A =$ required attributes byte.

Listing 6.1

```

1335 CLRD    PUSH AF
1340        PUSH BC
1345        PUSH HL
1350        LD   HL,16384
1355        LD   DE,16385
1360        LD   BC,6143
1365        LD   (HL),0
1370        LDIR
1375        POP  HL
1380        POP  BC
1385        POP  AF
1390        RET

```

Listing 6.2

```

0745 WAIT#  PUSH BC
0746        PUSH DE
0747        PUSH HL
0748        LD   BC,0
0749        LD   DE,0
0750        LD   HL,0
0751        PUSH AF
0752        LDIR
0753        POP  AF
0754        POP  HL
0755        POP  DE
0756        POP  BC
0757        RET
0760 LWAIT   PUSH BC
0761        LD   B,0
0762 LWAIU   CALL WAIT#
0763        DJNZ LWAIU
0764        POP  BC
0765        RET

```


I make no claim that the routines in this book are anywhere near minimum execution time or minimum length. Two or three people in competition should be able to make significant savings in time and space in most of the subroutines.

Wait and the passing of data into subroutines

When working with a machine code program, it is quite easy to execute output to the display faster than it can be displayed — certainly far faster than it can be comprehended. We need a routine that slows things down.

Going back again to the CLRD routine yet again, the LDIR operation is fairly slow. If it were entered with HL = DE and BC = 0 it would consume 65536*21 clock cycles or about a $\frac{1}{4}$ second at an 8 Mhz clock rate. So we can code the WAIT routine (**Listing 6.2** and **6.3**) taking care to save all the registers and restore them afterwards so that we can insert CALL WAIT at any point we wish without disrupting things.

If we want a still longer wait we can put a call of WAIT inside another loop to get a wait of 60–70 seconds (routine LWAIT).

While we are dealing with the WAIT function, it is often an idea to be able to wait until a key is pressed, and while we are doing this we can set specific key options (for use later on with data entry, cursor movement, games etc.).

The answer to 'how?' is in location 23560 of the Spectrum variables area. This contains the code for the last key pressed. Remember the Spectrum interrupt system is running all the time your routines are working, (you are, in jargon, time sharing with it), so we can just loop, reading 23560 until the code we want appears.

There are two problems to be answered

- a) How do we form the list?
- b) How do we tell the routine where the list is?

Commentary

The list must contain two things, a character code and an address to be accessed when that character is met. Some assemblers do not allow an address to be put into a list and the address may be so far away that a relative or displacement jump may not be used. An entry in the list must look like:

```
Character code  
JP ADDRESS
```

What about the length of the list?

We could work out the length of the list beforehand and pass it into the routine in a register, but if we want to add or delete list entries this must be

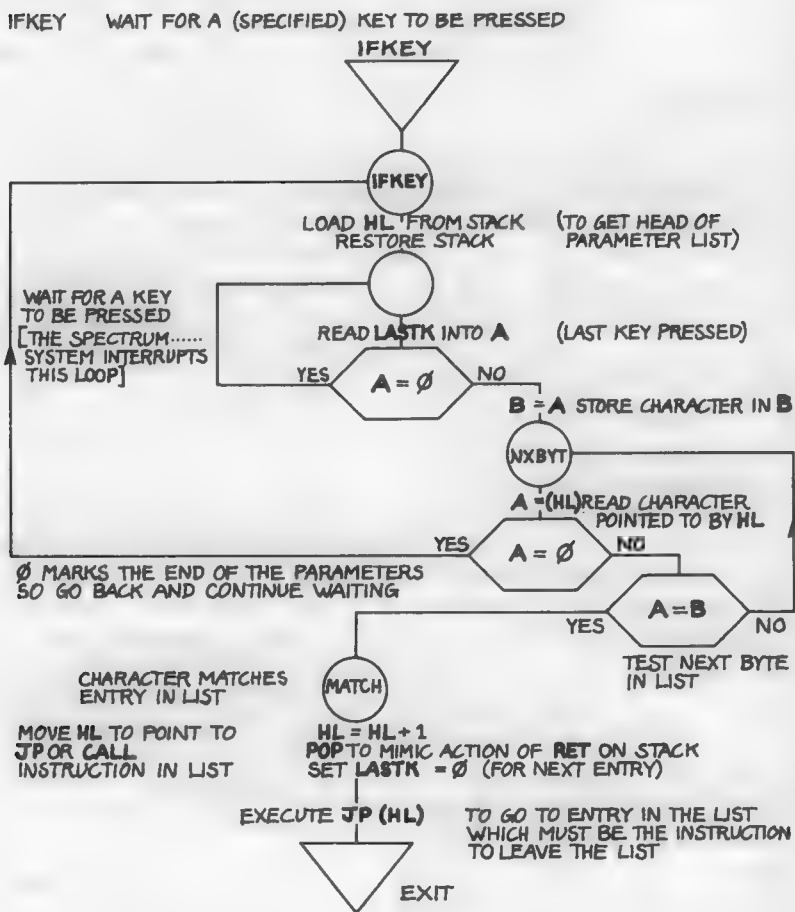
Listing 6.3

```

0520 PAUSE    PUSH AF
0525         PUSH BC
0530         PUSH DE
0535         PUSH HL
0540 PAUS1   LD    A, (LASTK)
0545         CP    0
0550         JR    Z, PAUS1
0555         LD    (CHAR#), A
0560         LD    A, 0
0565         LD    (LASTK), A
0570         POP  HL
0575         POP  BC
0580         POP  AF
0585         RET
0590 CHAR#   DEFB 0
0595 LASTK   EQU  23560
0600 IFKEY   POP  HL
0605         PUSH HL
0610 IF1     LD    A, (LASTK)
0615         CP    0
0620         JR    Z, IF1
0625         LD    B, A
0630 NXBYT   LD    A, (HL)
0635         CP    0
0640         JR    Z, IFKEY
0645         CP    B
0650         JR    Z, MATCH
0655         LD    DE, 4
0660         ADD  HL, DE
0665         JR    NXBYT
0670 MATCH   INC  HL
0675         POP  BC
0680         LD    B, A
0685         LD    A, 0
0690         LD    (LASTK), A
0695         JP   (HL)

```

Flowchart 6.1



changed as well. A better way is to sacrifice a character code and mark the end with that. I use 0 as it is unused anyway and is easily tested for.

The list now looks like:

```
Code 1
JP ADDR1
Code 2
JP DDR2
nop
```

A form of the list has been settled, how do we tell the routine where it is?

There are two schools of thought here. One says that lists and suchlike constants should be kept neatly segregated in a section. The other says that, as far as possible, all the constants should be found reasonably close to the routines which require them.

I tend toward the second school in this instance, as any routine becomes more rather than less self documenting. So, if we call the routine IFKEY (which tends to be self explanatory) its use could look like this:

```
CALL IFKEY
DEFB "A"
JP AREAD
DEFB "+"
JP INCR
NOP
```

(DEFB puts a character code in the code). The call of IFKEY hangs the program until either the A key is pressed (in capital shift) or the + key is pressed (in symbol shift).

How do we get the list into the routine?

The top of the stack contains the return address of the sub-routine, so it points to the code for 'A' in the above example. To read it we simply pop it off the stack into a suitable register. IFKEY, you will have realised, is called as a subroutine but does *not* return to the calling program through a RET instruction, which requires an extra pop action to match the push action of the CALL operation.

Synopsis

CLRD	clears the display.
IFKEY	waits until one of a preset list of keys is operated.
WAIT	causes a (roughly) $\frac{1}{4}$ second pause.
LWAIT	causes about a one minute pause.



CHAPTER 7

Display Output

The only real way for the Spectrum to communicate with its user is via the TV display, so it is very important to be able to do this. I will firstly present the necessary calculating routine, followed by a full character output program.

To output to the TV we must first be able to locate a pixel in the display buffer. From this routine we go on to write ASCII characters, display text strings, display octal numbers and report the contents of the registers. Along the way there is an introduction to the idea of 'global variables'.

PLOT: locating a pixel in the display buffer

'The display file stores the television picture. It is rather curiously laid out... ' Spectrum manual Chapter 24 p 164.

In all these routines the origin of the display is *the top lefthand corner* of the display area.

The display is divided into three sections, each of eight text lines (64 lines of pixels). There are 256 pixels per row — 32 bytes hold the data for 1 row, a bit set is an ink dot. The next 32 bytes after those for row 0 hold the data for row 8, and the next 32 byte block holds the data for row 16 and so on for the first third of the screen (see **Figure 7.1a**).

From this we can deduce that a horizontal position (or x coordinate) specifies a single bit in one of the 256 bits of a 32 byte block.

Stage 1 is then to take the x value in one byte and then use the three least significant bits to point to a bit in some byte. The remaining five most significant bits specify which byte in the 32 byte block is involved.

Stage 2 is to determine which of the 192 blocks of 32 bytes is involved. This must be deducted from the vertical position (or y coordinate). From **Figure 7.1a** we see that:

- Row 0 uses block 0
- Row 1 uses block 8
- Row 2 uses block 16 etc.

This may not give much inspiration, written like this, but remember that we are dealing with a computer and if we think in binary or octal we may be better off.

Figure 7.1a

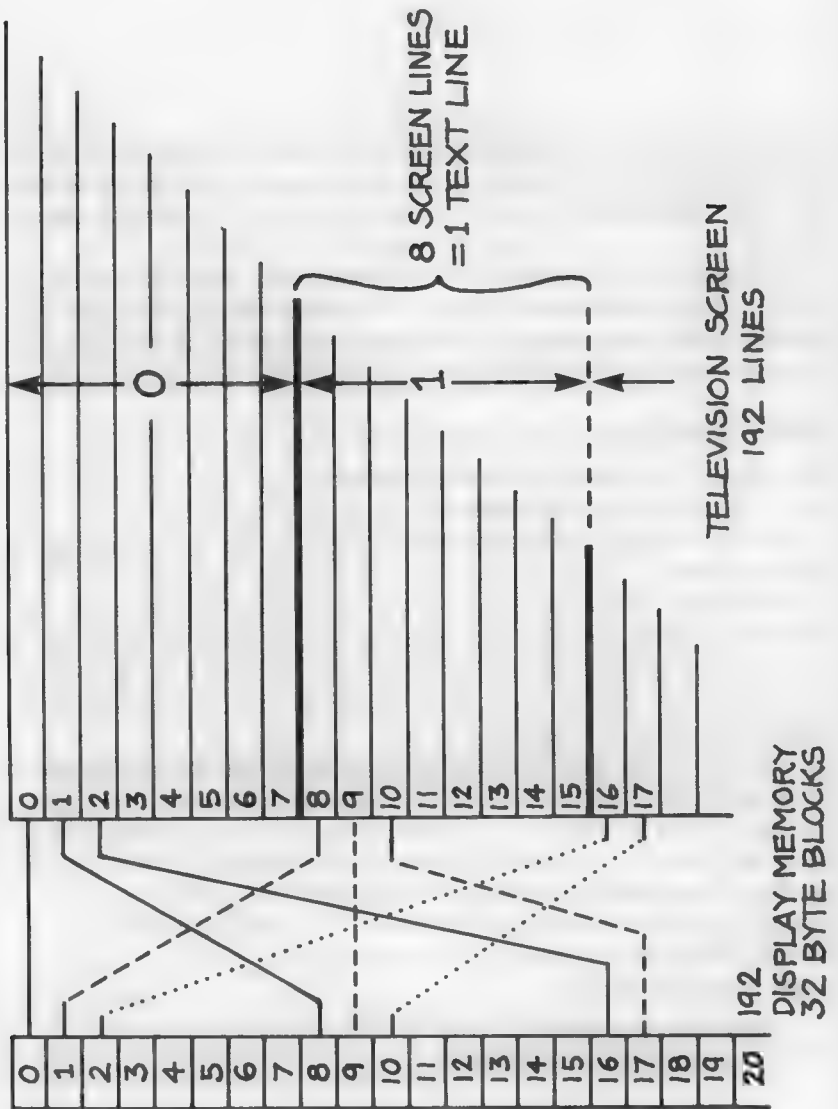
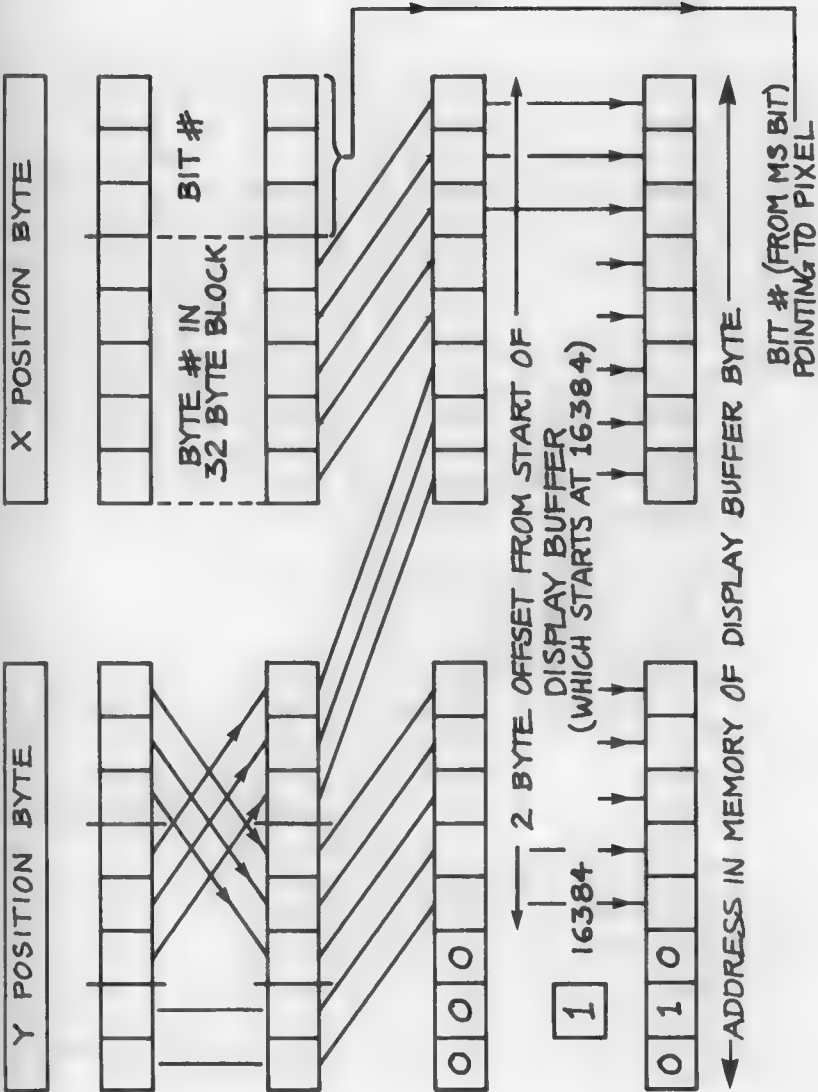


Figure 7.1b



Listing 7.1

a	0795 PLOT	PUSH BC
	0800	PUSH DE
	0805	LD A,C
b	0810	AND 7
	0815	ADD 1
	0820	LD E,A
	0825	SRL C
c	0830	SRL C
	0835	SRL C
	0840	LD A,B
	0845	AND 56
d	0850	SLA A
	0855	SLA A
	0860	OR C
	0865	LD C,A
	0870	LD A,B
	0875	AND 7
	0880	LD D,A
	0885	LD A,B
e	0890	AND 192
	0895	SRL A
	0900	SRL A
	0905	SRL A
	0910	ADD D
	0915	ADD 64
f	0920	LD B,A
	0925	PUSH BC
g	0930	POP HL
	0935	LD B,E
	0940	LD A,128
h	0945	JR PLA
	0950 PLB	SRL A
	0955 PLA	DJNZ PLB
	0960	POP DE
j	0965	POP BC
	0970	RET

Write down the mapping of **Figure 7.1a** in octal:

Row 00 uses block 00
 Row 01 uses block 10
 Row 02 uses block 20
 Row 10 uses block 01
 Row 11 uses block 11
 Row 20 uses block 02
 Row 21 uses block 12

and light dawns!

For the 64 rows of each section, all we have to do is swap the two least significant octal digits of the row number (which is the y coordinate) to get the 32 byte block number of the section. The remaining two bits of the row number must then be 00, 01 or 10 to select which of the three sections we want. (11 is an illegal value.)

Now that we know what we want to do we can draw (**Figure 7.1b**) a bit manipulation diagram. From here the coding is more or less straightforward, but note that it is all done in registers. Where a routine is to be used frequently memory access operations are to be avoided as they take half as long again as register access operations. Later on, in writing characters, this routine will be called eight times per character or 6144 times for a full screen.

Now for the formalities and the program description:

Routine PLOT

Entry Conditions x position in C register
 y position in B register

Exit Conditions BC as at entry
 DE as at entry
 HL address of display buffer byte
 A one set bit corresponds to the bit in the byte
 addressed by HL which refers to the BC defined pixel

Note

- 1 The target bit in the display buffer is only indicated.
- 2 Since the program is 'drop through' (except for the A register shift), there is no flow diagram.

The above is an example of the documentation I mentioned previously. Now for the program description.

SECTION DESCRIPTION

- a Save registers.
- b Mask out the bit number bits, add 1 and save the count in the E register (see (h) below for the reason for this addition).
- c Shift the contents of the C register three bits right (this forms the index within a 32 byte block).
- d Part 1 of the octal swap; (56 decimal = 70 octal) move the contents of B into A, mask with 56, move two places left and place these three bits in the MS 3 bits of the C register. (Along with the five bits which point to the byte within the block.)
- e Part 2 of the octal swap; extract the LS 3 bits from the B register and store them in D. 192 decimal is 128 + 64 or the MS 2 bits of a byte, extract these bits from the B register (they point to which section is needed), move them right three places and add them to the 3 bits in the D register.
- f The display buffer starts at 16384, which is bit 6 (decimal 64) in the MS byte of a 2 byte address; add 64 to the total in the A register and store the result in B.

Note: BC is now set up with the required address (on the assumption that BC pointed to a valid pixel to start with). There remains the problem of setting up the A register.

- g BC is transferred to HL.
- h B is set to the contents of E from stage b. This is one more than the count in the LS 3 bits because the decrement of B by the DJNZ operation is done before the right shift.
Bit 7 is set in A and the PLB / PLA instruction pair shift A right as long as B is non zero.
Exit is with A having one bit set in the correct place.
- j Restore BC and DE; A and HL are set up as required.

Exit

This is probably the most complicated routine in the whole book. Everything which outputs to the display uses it and unless you understand exactly how it works other things later on will probably be more difficult.

The Spectrum system allows the BASIC user to position the head of a piece of text by using AT and takes a new line with the start of each new PRINT statement. In the next part of the program, where we output characters in various forms, the top lefthand corner of each 8 × 8 character pixel array is located on the screen by two 1 byte variables, LINE and COLM. Their relative positions must not be altered as they are used

together to set up BC for a call on PLOT to determine which display buffer bytes are to be loaded.

To simplify matters, COLM is incremented by 8 and when it overflows and becomes zero LINE is incremented by 8. When LINE points off the screen it is set to zero and display begins again at the top lefthand corner of the screen. The routine NPAGE sets both to zero and calls the display buffer clear routine CLRDR.

Listing 7.2(1)

```

0975 PRIN    PUSH AF
0980        PUSH BC
0985        PUSH DE
0990        PUSH HL
0995        SUB 32
1000        JP M,PXL
1005        SUB 96
1010        JP P,PXL
1015        ADD 96
1020        PUSH AF
1025        LD BC,(COLM)
1030        CALL PLOT
1035        EX DE,HL
1040        POP HL
1045        LD L,H
1050        LD H,0
1055        ADD HL,HL
1060        ADD HL,HL
1065        ADD HL,HL
1070        LD BC,15616
1075        ADD HL,BC
1080        LD B,8
1085 RPRT    LD A,(HL)
1090        INC HL
1095        EX DE,HL
1100        LD (HL),A
1105        INC H
1110        EX DE,HL
1115        DJNZ RPRT
1120        LD A,(COLM)
1125        ADD B
1130        LD (COLM),A

```

```
1135      JR    NZ,PXL
1140      LD    A,(LINE)
1145      ADD   8
1150      LD    (LINE),A
1155      ADD   64
1160      JR    NZ,PXL
1165      LD    A,0
1170      LD    (COLM),A
1175      LD    (LINE),A
1180 PXL   POP   HL
1185      POP   DE
1190      POP   BC
1195      POP   AF
1200      RET
1205 COLM NOP
1210 LINE  NOP
```

Listing 7.2(2)

```
1395 NPAGE CALL CLRD
1400      PUSH AF
1405      LD    A,0
1410      LD    (LINE),A
1415      LD    (COLM),A
1420      POP   AF
1425      RET
```

PRIN

To display a single character at the location defined by LINE and COLM; also to set LINE and COLM to point to the next character position.

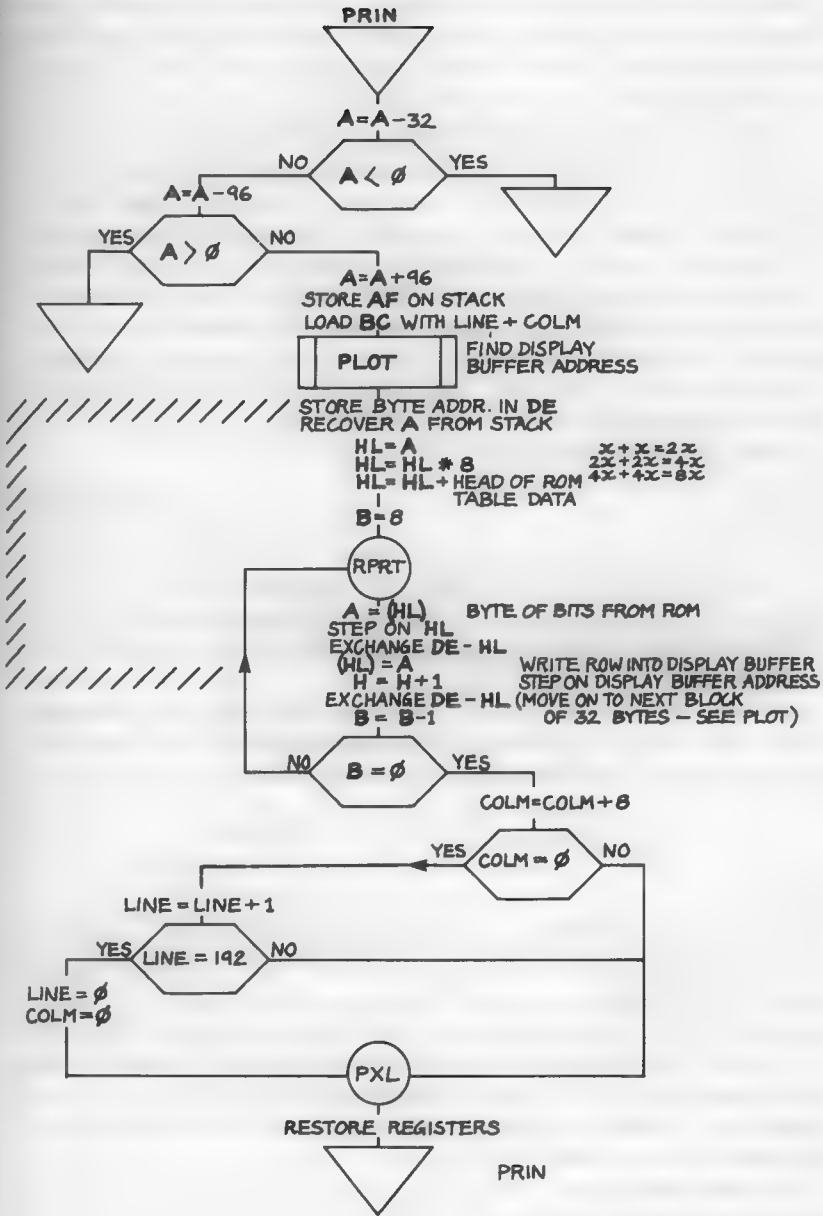
This routine uses the Spectrum ROM character table of pixel bit patterns, at 8 bytes per character for all the ASCII codes from 32 to 127 inclusive. They start at 15616 in ROM and each 8 byte block is set up along the lines indicated in Chapter 14 of the Spectrum manual.

The requirement in printing a character is to load into the display store the appropriate eight bytes and advance the LINE / COLM pointer(s) to be ready for the next character.

Commentary

This is acutely dependent on the LINE/COLM pointer indicating a character cell not crossing byte or display segment boundaries. I see no reason for complicating the problem, but see Chapter 8 for how to deal with the general problem.

Flowchart 7.1



The routine is entered with the ASCII character code in the A register and it is first tested for 'printability'. Non-printable characters are omitted, not replaced by blanks. 32 is effectively subtracted from the ASCII code, to give a position pointer to the bytes in the ROM, and A stored on the stack. PLOT is now used to determine the address of the display buffer byte to be used for the first row of pixels. LINE and COLM, stored as adjacent bytes, are collected together by the LD BC, . . operation.

From PLOT the byte address is stored in DE and the character code recovered, multiplied by 8 (8 bytes per character) and added to the head address of the ROM data table to point to the required bytes. This is the address to change if you want to use your own character definition bytes.

B is set to 8 to count the 8 bytes to be transferred from the ROM. That byte is transferred to the display buffer and the display buffer pointer incremented by 256 to point to the 32 byte block where the next byte is to be placed. This is done by incrementing the H register of the HL pair when it contains the appropriate data. The transfer loop at RPRT keeps its two pointers in HL and DE, exchanging them as needed. It starts off with HL pointing to the ROM and DE to the display buffer.

After the character has been written to the buffer COLM is incremented by 8 (8 pixels maketh one character row) to point to the next character in the line. If the count has gone over the top and become 0 LINE is incremented by 8 (8 pixel rows maketh one character) and the result tested against 192 for 'beyond bottom of screen'. If at the bottom both LINE and COLM are reset to zero. The routine exits after restoring registers, except the A, at PXL.

This routine will not work properly if either LINE or COLM come to contain any value which is not an exact multiple of 8. A first exercise for you is to modify it to ensure that they do stay as exact multiples of 8.

PTEX

Printing text, which is just a question of feeding PRIN with a sequence of characters, is achieved by arranging the text to be printed in the bytes immediately following the call of the routine and having it terminated with a zero byte. This works perfectly well with fixed length text, composed or allocated at assembly time, but you will need to produce a modified version which deals with text held somewhere else at a known address. I strongly advise you, however, to mark the end of such text with a zero byte as it is non-printable and easily tested for.

We saw in IFKEY how to use the subroutine return address from the top of the stack to get at data immediately following the call of a subroutine. We do the same thing here to get at the first, and subsequent, characters of the string. At PXB, with HL pointing to a byte, it is loaded into the A

Listing 7.3(1)

```

1280 PTEX      POP   HL
1285 PXB      LD    A, (HL)
1290          CP    0
1295          JR    NZ, PXA
1300          JP    (HL)
1305 PXA      PUSH  HL
1310          LD    A, (HL)
1315          CALL FRIN
1320          POP   HL
1325          INC  HL
1330          JR    PXR

```

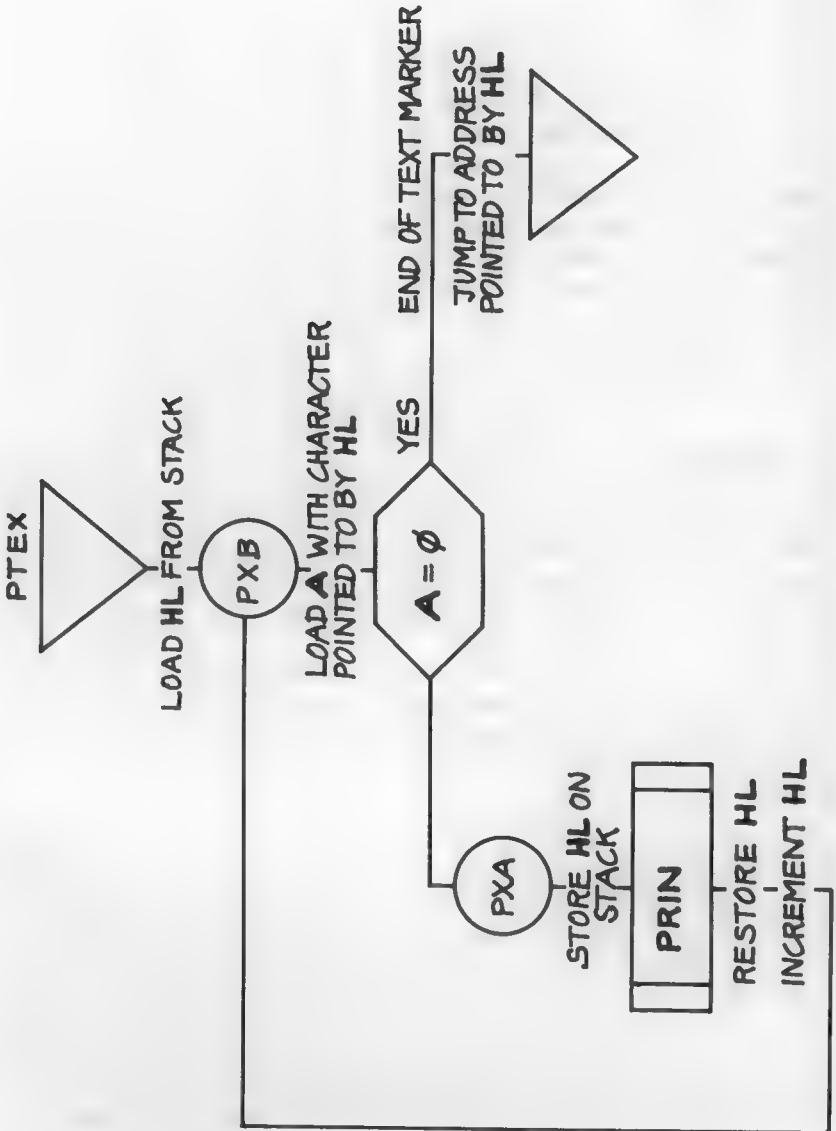
Listing 7.3(2)

```

0700 SRHL$    SRL   L
0705          SRL   H
0710          RET  NC
0715          SET  7, L
0720          RET
0725 RHL3$    CALL SRHL$
0730          CALL SRHL$
0735          CALL SRHL$
0740          RET

```


Flowchart 7.2



register and compared with zero; if it is the end of text marker byte then HL is pointing to a NOP instruction as well and the JP (HL) instruction transfers control out of the routine and back to the main program; otherwise, at PXA, A contains an ASCII character to be displayed by PRIN. While PRIN runs the text pointer is saved on the stack so that it can be recovered and incremented. Return is then made to PXB to collect the next character or the end marker.

Now come two primitive routines for doing a double byte, 16 bit, right shift. There is a much better, more elegant and faster way of shifting right.

SRHL

The two SRL operations shift each register right 1 bit place, the second, on the more significant byte, will set the carry flag if a bit is 'lost' on the bottom and unset the flag if no bit was lost. The RET NC exits from the routine when no correction has to be made to the L register, otherwise the lost bit is replaced in the MS bit of the L register by the SET 7,L operation.

RHL3

This performs three right shift operations together, so dividing the contents of the HL register pair by 8 which is just what is required when printing octal numbers as described in PRT8.

PRT8

Now we can print text, what about numbers? Well, there are all sorts of complicated routines that you can read about elsewhere. This will just print a 16 bit binary number, in HL, as a 6 digit octal number, no frills, no sign, just something simple so that we can have a method of debugging programs later on.

There are two tricks here:

- 1 The ASCII characters for digits are a sequential set from 48 (decimal) onwards, so the required octal character is obtained by adding 48 to the 3 binary bits of the octal value in question.
- 2 Use the ready-built PTEX routine to do the output and overwrite what was output last time.

On entry the registers are all saved on the stack and DE pointed to the byte where the LS digit of the output is to be loaded for printing by PTEX. B is set to 6 as there are only six bytes to be produced. At PRU3 the three least significant bits of HL are obtained by masking and the character code for the value calculated by the addition of 48. This is stored in the location indicated by DE, DE is decremented and HL shifted right three bits to reveal the next octal group if B does not go to zero. If B is zero all six bytes

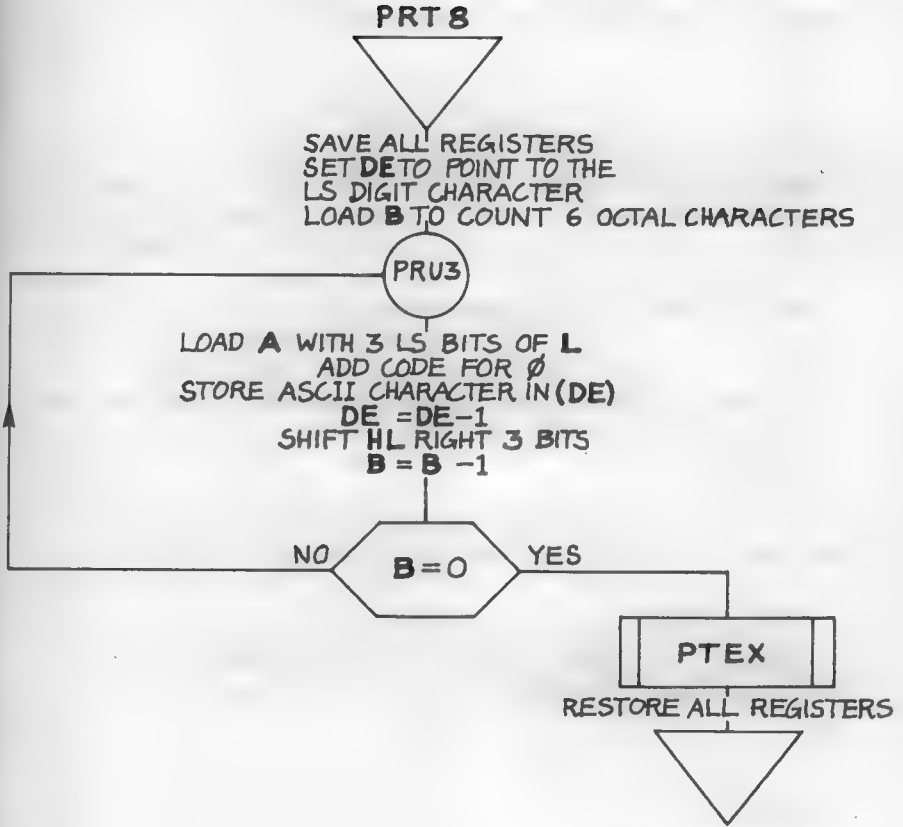
Listing 7.4(1)

```
1430 PRT8    PUSH AF
1435        PUSH BC
1440        PUSH DE
1445        PUSH HL
1450        LD    DE,P8Z1-1
1455        LD    B,6
1460 PRU3    LD    A,L
1465        AND  7
1470        ADD  48
1475        LD    (DE),A
1480        DEC  DE
1485        CALL RHL3#
1490        DJNZ PRU3
1495        CALL PTEX
1500        DEFM "cdefgh"
1505 P8Z1    DEFM "  "
1510        NOP
1515        POP  HL
1520        POP  DE
1525        POP  BC
1530        POP  AF
1535        RET
```

Listing 7.4(2)

```
5440 PRT8W   PUSH HL
5445        PUSH AF
5450        PUSH DE
5455        PUSH BC
5460        CALL PRT8
5465        CALL IFKEY
5470        DEFB "m"
5475        JP   PR8WX
5480        NOP
5485 PR8WX   POP  BC
5490        POP  DE
5495        POP  AF
5500        POP  HL
5505        RET
```

Flowchart 7.3



have been loaded on top of hgfedc in the listing, P8Z1 is a pair of spaces to terminate the displayed 6 characters output by the call of PTEX after which all the registers are restored to their entry values and the routine exits.

PRT8 can thus be inserted anywhere in a program when a check is required on the contents of HL.

RPORT

While debugging programs it is often necessary to be able to display the values of all the registers, so the next routine does exactly that, together with the return address using PRT8. Since the program is so straightforward there is no flow diagram.

There are three points to be noticed:

- 1 The stack pointer value, indicated by \$ = can indicate if the program is 'running away' because of unmatched POPs and PUSHs.
- 2 The CALL RPORT return address, indicated by #, allows several outputs from different calls to be distinguished.
- 3 The messy way data is passed into HL to print the return address. There is a better, more elegant way by computing the instruction, as is demonstrated later, in MOVER and VAR\$1 for example.

Listing 7.5

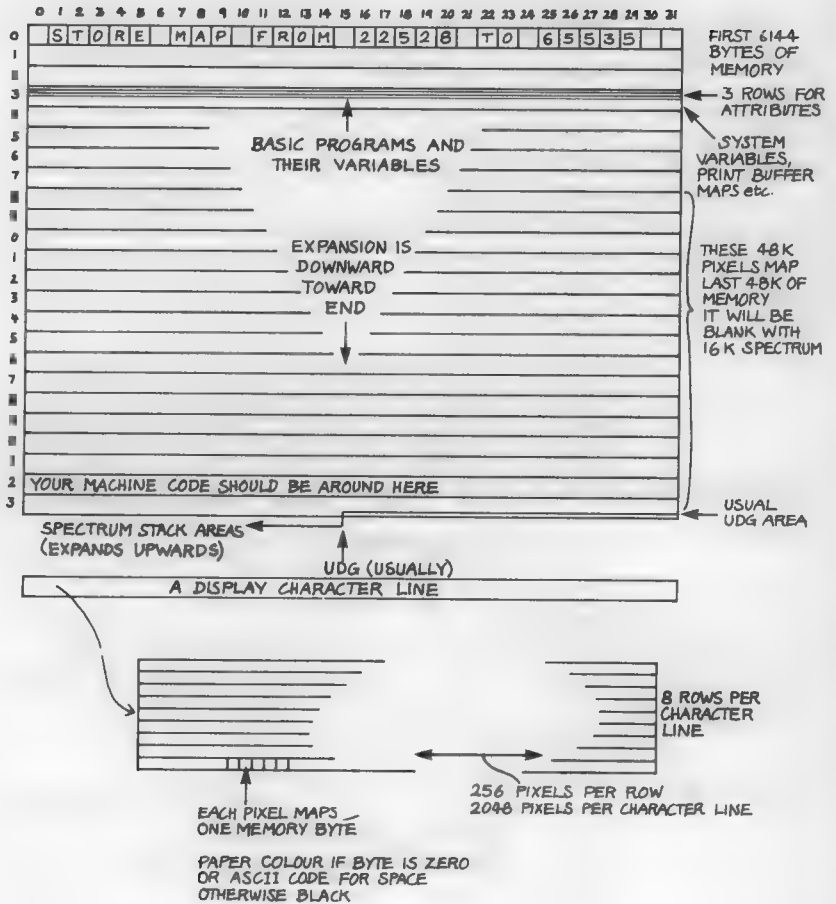
```
1540 RPORT LD (SP$),SP
1545 PUSH AF
1550 PUSH BC
1555 PUSH DE
1560 PUSH HL
1565 LD (HL#),HL
1570 LD (DE#),DE
1575 LD (BC#),BC
1580 PUSH AF
1585 POP HL
1590 LD (AF#),HL
1595 CALL PTEX
```

```

1600      DEFM "AF="
1605      NOP
1610      LD   HL, (AF#)
1615      CALL PRT8
1620      CALL PTEX
1625      DEFM "BC="
1630      NOP
1635      LD   HL, (BC#)
1640      CALL PRT8
1645      CALL PTEX
1650      DEFM "HL="
1655      NOP
1660      LD   HL, (HL#)
1665      CALL PRT8
1670      CALL PTEX
1675      DEFM "DE="
1680      NOP
1685      LD   HL, (DE#)
1690      CALL PRT8
1695      CALL PTEX
1700      DEFM "#="
1705      NOP
1710      LD   HL, (SP#)
1715      CALL PRT8
1720      CALL PTEX
1725      DEFM "£="
1730      NOP
1735      LD   HL, (SP#)
1740      LD   E, (HL)
1745      INC  HL
1750      LD   D, (HL)
1755      EX  DE, HL
1760      CALL PRT8
1765      CALL PAUSE
1770      POP  HL
1775      POP  DE
1780      POP  BC
1785      POP  AF
1790      RET
1795 AF#  DEFW 0
1800 HL#  DEFW 0
1805 DE#  DEFW 0
1810 BC#  DEFW 0
1815 SP#  DEFW 0

```

Figure 7.2



Map\$

Now let us put some of the bricks together for something useful — a routine for displaying the free space in memory.

We have available 6144 bytes of display buffer which contain 48k of pixels so we can map each RAM byte to a pixel (we ignore the ROM) by setting the pixel to black ink if the byte is neither space, in ASCII, nor blank, otherwise the pixel is left paper coloured.

Commentary

The calls of NPAGE and PTEX clear the display and set up the output description in the top two lines; the top three text lines, or 24 rows of pixels map to the display buffer and we know what is there so I don't map that either.

From labels NXF1 to NXF3 the routine is setting up the attributes area so that each line of 8 rows of pixels is a different colour from its neighbours. Each row, remember, covers $8 * 256 = 2048$ bytes of RAM and even rough location is impossible if the screen is all the same colour.

At NXF3 HL is set to the address of the head of RAM and BC, initialised to point to the first address beyond the end of the display buffer, and results in the sum $HL + BC$ being the address of the byte to be currently tested. If this sum runs beyond 16 bits to zero the carry flag will be set and the routine exits on the RET C after all the RAM has been examined. The byte addressed by the sum, in HL, is loaded into the A register and tested for 0/32, in either case of equality the PLOT routine is skipped and the pixel left as paper colour.

Since the byte count is from the head of RAM in BC the lower byte can specify a pixel x position and the higher byte the pixel row. It is of course the purest happenstance that this is the way that PLOT requires its input to be specified.

Setting the ink pixel is just ORing in the bit in the A register, after the call of PLOT, with the address specified by HL. The program then returns to NXF with an increment BC to test the next byte.

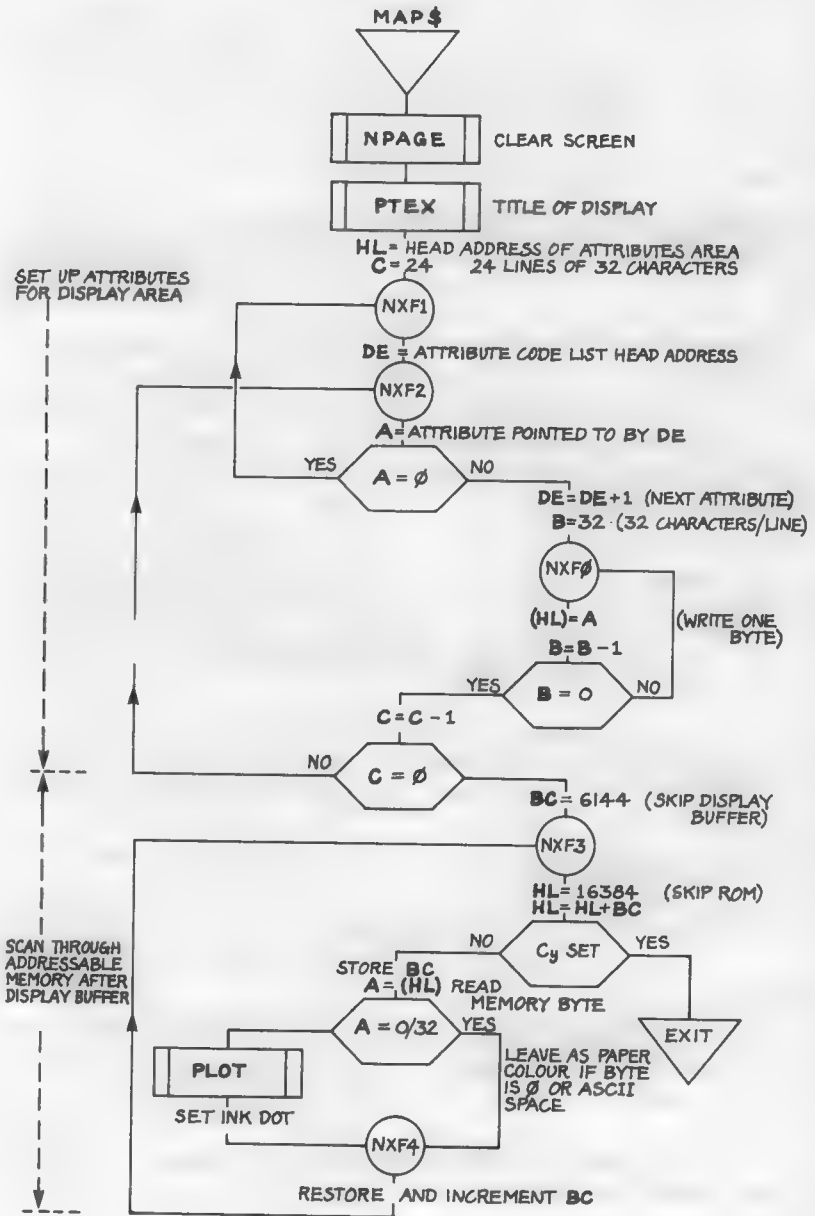
Synopsis

PLOT performs the same function as the Spectrum plot function, it is the foundation of all display output. It forms the basis of the animation routine of Chapter 8 and the drawing program of Chapter 13.

PRIN displays a character, ASCII code in the A register, at the next available character position.

NPAGE clears the screen and sets PRIN to start at the beginning of line one.

Flowchart 7.4



Listing 7.6

```

1820 MAP#    CALL NPAGE
1825        CALL PTEX
1830        DEFM " STORE MAP FROM 22528 TO
           65535  "
1835        NOP
1840        LD   HL,22528
1845        LD   C,24
1850 NXF1    LD   DE,LIST
1855 NXF2    LD   A,(DE)
1860        CP   0
1865        JR   Z,NXF1
1870        INC  DE
1875        LD   B,32
1880 NXFO    LD   (HL),A
1885        INC  HL
1890        DJNZ NXFO
1895        DEC  C
1900        JR   NZ,NXF2
1905        LD   BC,6144
1910 NXF3    LD   HL,16384
1915        ADD  HL,BC
1920        RET  C
1925        PUSH BC
1930        LD   A,(HL)
1935        CP   0
1940        JR   Z,NXF4
1945        CP   32
1950        JR   Z,NXF4
1955        CALL PLOT
1960        LD   B,(HL)
1965        OR   B
1970        LD   (HL),A
1975 NXF4    POP  BC
1980        INC  BC
1985        JR   NXF3
1990 LIST    DEFB 96
1995        DEFB 104
2000        DEFB 112
2005        DEFB 120
2010        NOP

```

Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

PTEX uses **PRIN** to display the text following its call (the text must end with a zero value byte).

PRT8 uses **PRIN** to display the contents of **HL** as an octal number.

PRT8W uses **PRT8** with a wait for the "m" key to be pressed.

RPORT displays the contents of the registers (not **IX** and **IY**).

MAP\$ displays memory occupation.

CHAPTER 8

Animation

GCELL

The aim and object of this routine is to display rapidly a sequence of images at a moveable point on the screen. These images or patterns are drawn in a box or cell. The larger the cell, of up to 2040 pixels, the longer the routine takes. The BASIC interface is just about as complex as can be handled without designing a fundamentally new, and more general, technique: see Chapter 9.

Interface

The user sets bytes 23675/6 (UDG) to the address of the first byte of a block of data, defined below, which the routine will use. There may be several such blocks, switching amongst them is done by changing the contents of UDG.

BYTE	DESCRIPTION
0	cell horizontal position x
1	cell vertical position y
2	control flags and next frame no. *
3	BCR no. of bits per cell row 1 – 255
4	BCC no. of bits per cell column 1 – 255
5	WPC no. of works per cell 1 – 255
6	frame sequence control bytes; the LS 4 bits of byte 2 to one of these 15 bytes; the LS 4 bits of this byte define which cell is
20	to be displayed
21	set to 0
22	first byte of cell 1 data. There are WPC bytes in this and the other cells
22 + WPC	first byte of cell 2 data
22 + 2.WPC	first byte of cell 3 data

and so on for as many cells, up to 15, as are needed.

Control flags and next frame no. — byte 2

BIT NO.	DESCRIPTION
7	MS bit: if set the routine exits doing nothing
6	set by the routine if any part of the currently displayed cell is outside the allowable display area. This bit should be monitored by the user program
5-4	not used
3-0	if zero the routine exits If non zero the contents are used to point to a frame sequence control byte which identifies the next cell to be displayed. (Add 5 to the value and the result is 6 to 20; this is the number of a byte, relative to the head of the block, which contains the cell identifier). The routine increments this pointer or resets it to 1 after the end of the sequence list is met, as recognised by a zero entry. This can always be overwritten by the user rewriting byte (UDG) + 2

Cell data

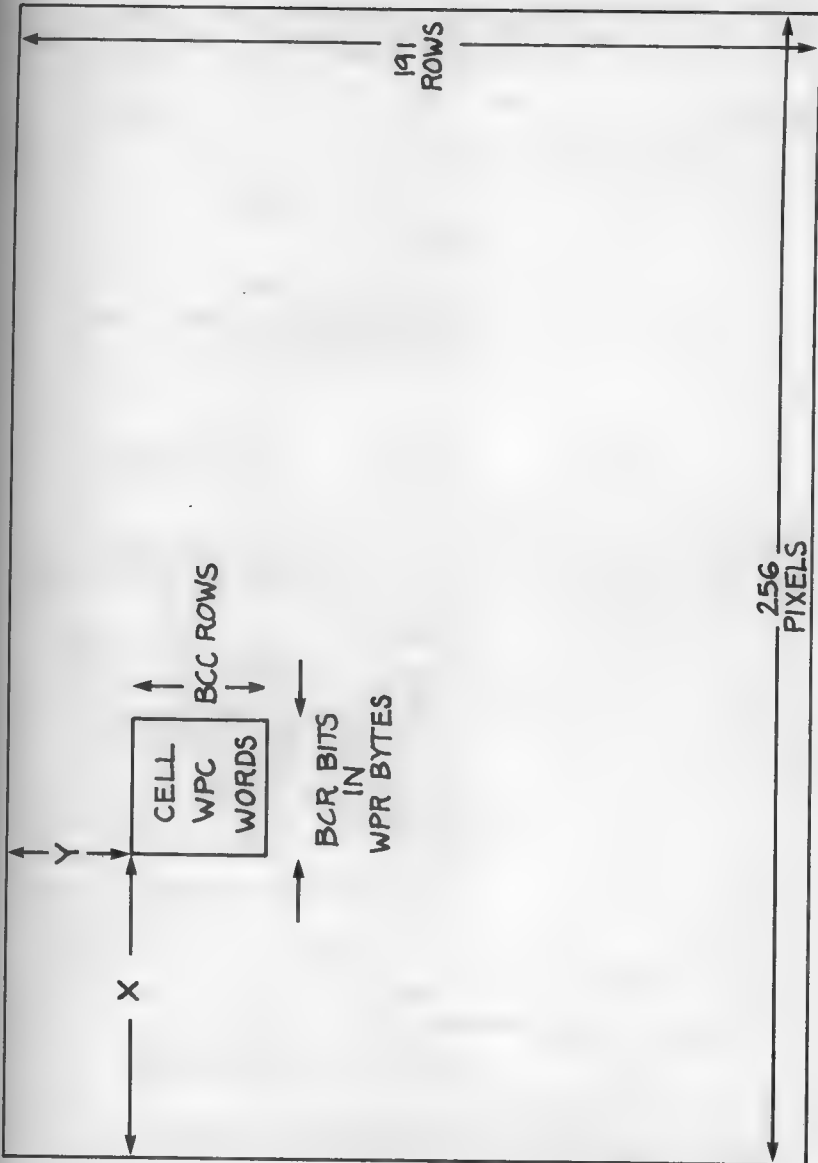
Each row of pixels in a graphics cell starts at the MS bit in the first of a sequence of bytes. There are BCR/8 bytes in this sequence, and surplus bits are ignored. There are BCC sequences, one for each row of pixels in the cell. Each set bit generates an inked pixel but remember that the attributes area must be set up as a separate exercise.

Description of GCELL

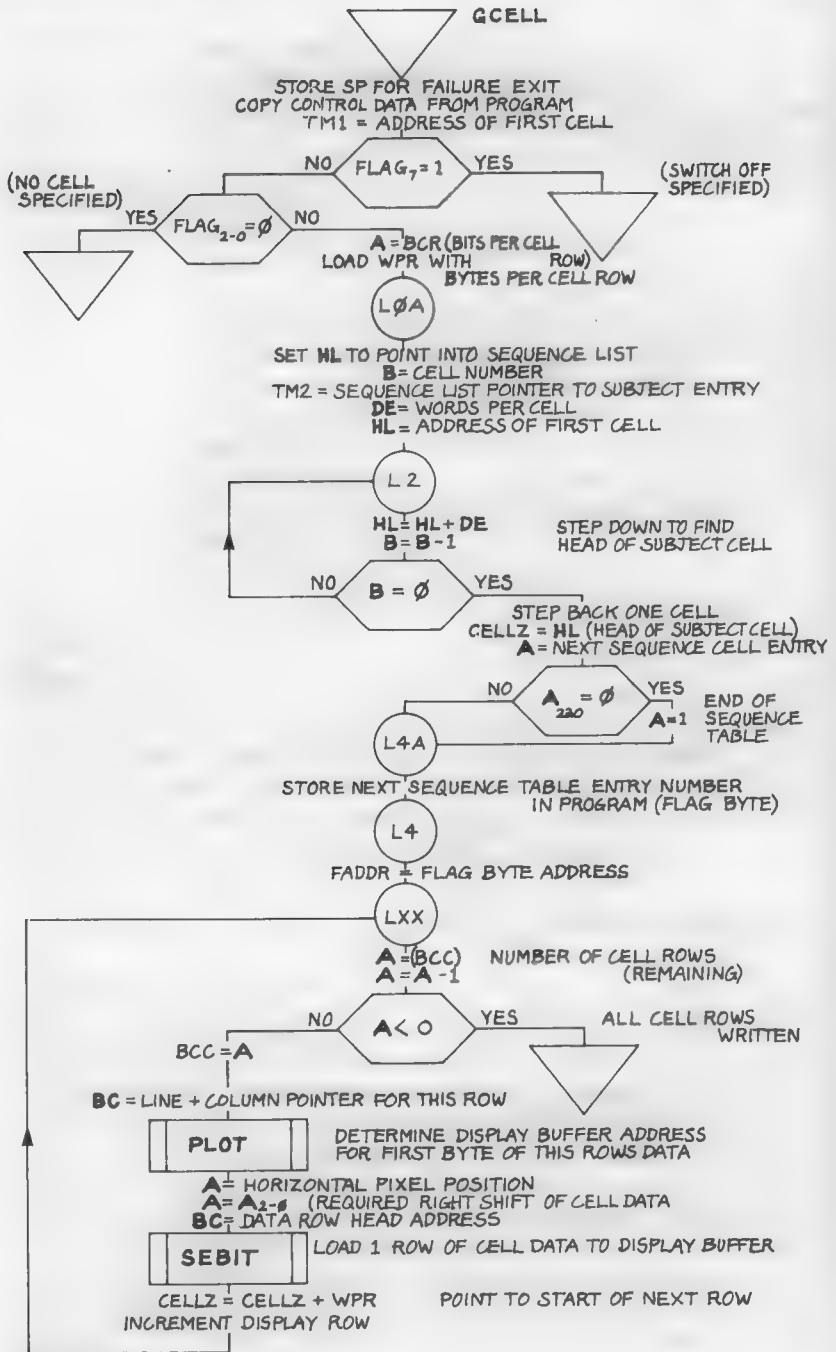
SP is stored in PANIC so the stack can be reset and a dignified exit made if the routine attempts to write beyond the allowable display buffer area. The first 21 bytes of the control data is copied into the routine and TM1 set to the address of the first graphics cell. Byte 2, the flag byte, is now tested and the routine exits if 'switch off' or no cell is specified, otherwise the last four bits specify which sequence table entry contains the required cell number. L0A to L2 and DJNZ operation pick up this cell number and set CELLZ with the head address of the cell data.

At L4A-L4 the next sequence table pointer is calculated and stored back in the interface table byte 2 ready for use at the next call of the routine. FADDR is set up with the address of this byte for use by SEBIT if need be.

Figure 8.1



Flowchart 8.1



Listing 8.1

```

2015 GCELL LD (PANIC),SP
2020 UDG EQU 23675
2025 LD HL,(UDG)
2030 LD DE,XY
2035 LD BC,CELLZ-XY-1
2040 LDIR
2045 LD (TM1),HL
2050 LD A,(FLAG)
2055 BIT 7,A
2060 RET NZ
2065 AND 15
2070 LD (FLAG),A
2075 SUB 1
2080 RET M
2085 LD A,(BCR)
2090 SRL A
2095 SRL A
2100 SRL A
2105 LD (WPR),A
2110 LD A,(BCR)
2115 AND 7
2120 JR Z,LOA
2125 LD A,(WPR)
2130 ADD 1
2135 LD (WPR),A
2140 LOA LD HL,FSEQ-1
2145 LD A,(FLAG)
2150 LD B,0
2155 LD C,A
2160 ADD HL,BC
2165 LD B,(HL)
2170 LD (TM2),HL
2175 LD A,(WPC)
2180 LD E,A
2185 LD D,0
2190 LD HL,(TM1)
2195 L2 ADD HL,DE
2200 DJNZ L2
2205 OR A
2210 SBC HL,DE

```


Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

2215		LD	(CELLZ),HL
2220		LD	HL,(TM2)
2225		INC	HL
2230		LD	A,(HL)
2235		AND	15
2240		JR	NZ,L4A
2245		LD	A,1
2250	L4A	LD	HL,(UDG)
2255		INC	HL
2260		INC	HL
2265		LD	(HL),A
2270	L4	LD	(FADDR),HL
2275	LXX	LD	A,(BCC)
2280		SUB	1
2285		RET	M
2290		LD	(BCC),A
2295		LD	BC,(XY)
2300		CALL	PLOT
2305		LD	A,(XY)
2310		AND	7
2315		LD	BC,(CELLZ)
2320		CALL	SEBIT
2325		LD	HL,(CELLZ)
2330		LD	BC,(WPR)
2335		ADD	HL,BC
2340		LD	(CELLZ),HL
2345		LD	A,(XY+1)
2350		ADD	1
2355		LD	(XY+1),A
2360		JR	LXX
2365	PANIC	DEFW	0
2370	XY	DEFW	0
2375	FLAG	DEFB	0
2380	BCR	DEFB	0
2385	BCC	DEFB	0
2390	WPC	DEFB	0
2395	FSEQ	DEFM	"cD.N.Laine 1983"
2400		NOP	
2405	CELLZ	DEFW	0
2410	WPR	DEFW	0
2415	TM1	DEFW	0
2420	TM2	DEFW	0
2425	FADDR	DEFW	0

Cell plotting (LXX onwards)

On entry XY holds the position of the top lefthand corner of the cell in PLOT required format, the other rows are defined by incrementing the y part of XY. BCC is used as a counter of the number of rows to be output and the routine exits when BCC has been decremented below zero.

PLOT determines the display buffer load byte address and bit number for the head of the current row of pixels which is pointed to by CELLZ, and SEBIT plots the row of pixels; CELLZ is then incremented to point to the head of the next row of pixels and the loop repeated.

SEBIT

This routine plots or unplots pixels in the display buffer according to how they are set or unset in the cell row. Separate pointers are maintained to step through both sets of bytes.

At entry to DNB HL points into the display buffer and DS points to the bit to be set/unset; CELLZ points into the cell data and TS is the bit number of the cell byte; WC is a count of bits/pixels per cell row — the routine loops BCR times.

TST is a computed bit test instruction to test the TS bit in the cell byte, according to how the bit is to be set/unset. So SET or RES instructions are computed and executed at DO to set or unset the required bit in the display buffer.

Having dealt with one pixel the pointers are incremented; if either bit pointer is negative it is reset to 7 and the corresponding byte pointer is incremented. If the display buffer pointer, HL, points into the last pixel row then, since to simplify matters this is forbidden, the flag byte has bit 6 set and there is a PANIC escape.

Note: this uses computed instructions: how will your assembler deal with them?

64 + 7 generates the BIT ?,A instruction
 128 + 7 generates the RES ?,A instruction
 192 + 7 generates the SET ?,A instruction

Synopsis

GCELL, which uses PLOT, enables you to do complex animation. Chapter 13 will let you set up blocks of colour. Later on there is a routine to move the blocks around, or so it will appear.

Flowchart 8.2

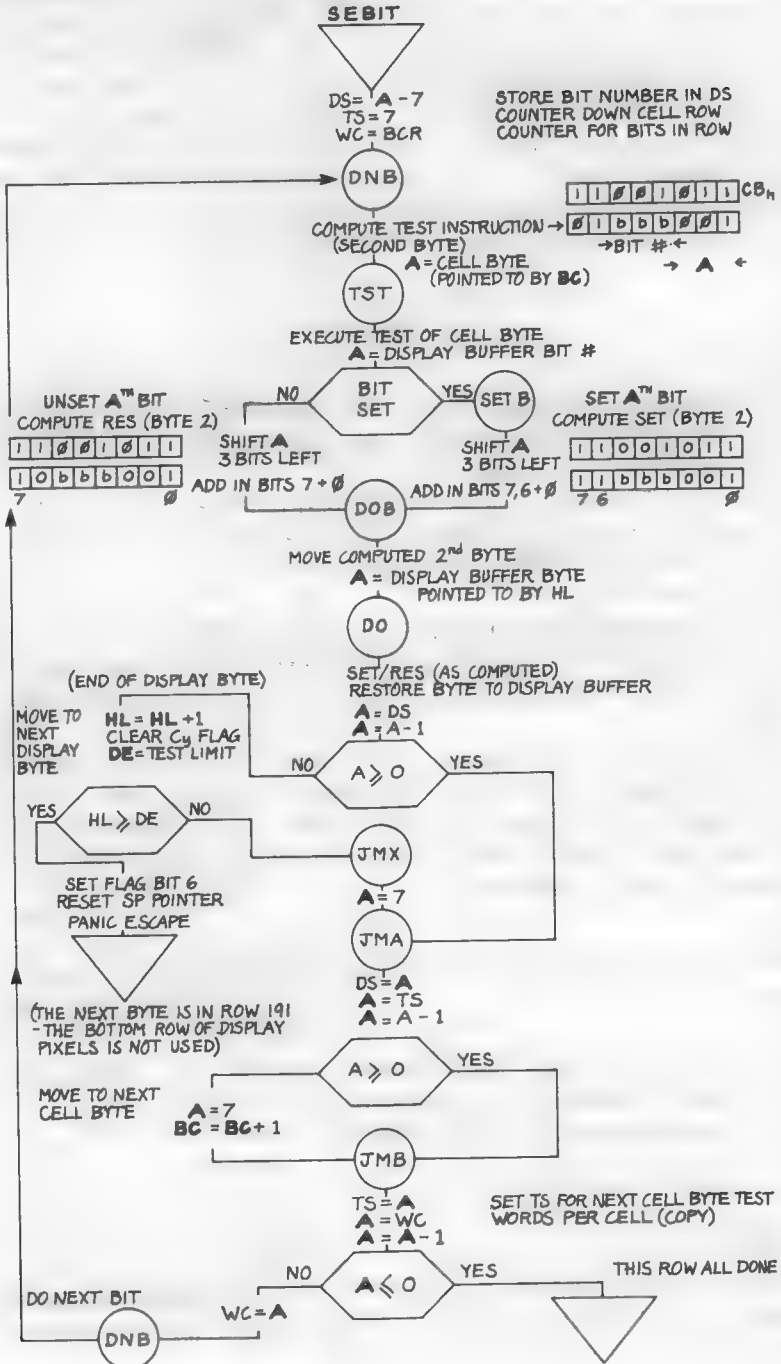
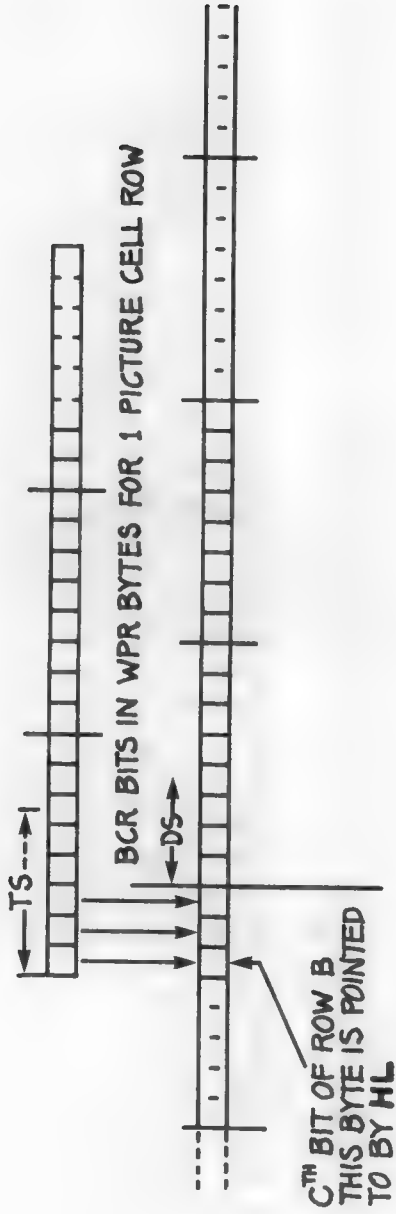


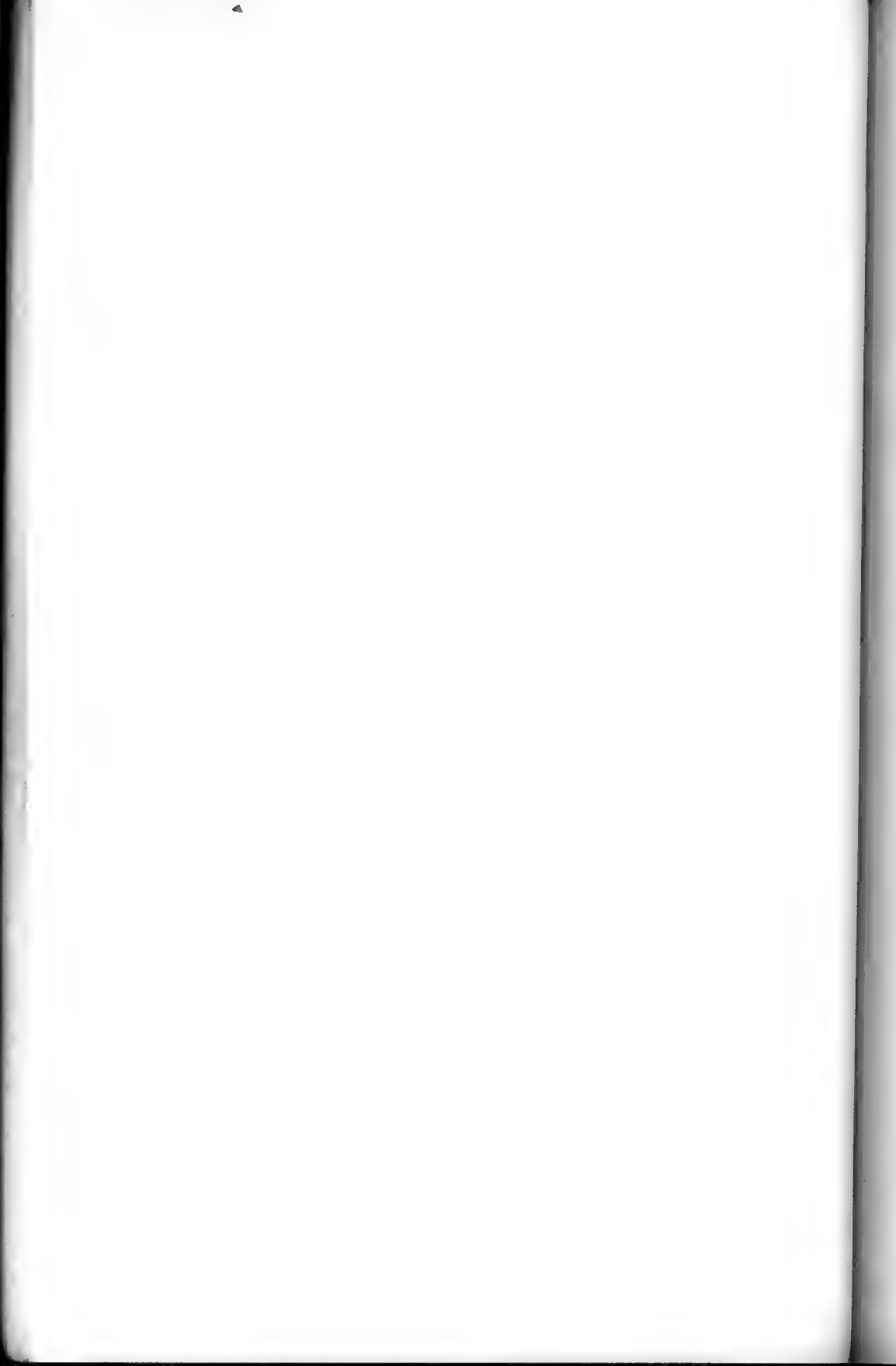
Figure 8.2



Listing 8.2

```
2430 SEBIT SUB 7
2435 NEG
2440 LD (DS),A
2445 LD A,7
2450 LD (TS),A
2455 LD A,(BCR)
2460 LD (WC),A
2465 DNB LD A,(TS)
2470 SLA A
2475 SLA A
2480 SLA A
2485 ADD 64+7
2490 LD (TST+1),A
2495 LD A,(BC)
2500 TST BIT 1,A
2505 LD A,(DS)
2510 JR NZ,SETB
2515 SLA A
2520 SLA A
2525 SLA A
2530 ADD 128+7
2535 JR DOB
2540 SETB LD A,(DS)
2545 SLA A
2550 SLA A
2555 SLA A
2560 ADD 192+7
2565 DOB LD (DO+1),A
2570 LD A,(HL)
2575 DO SET 0,A
2580 LD (HL),A
2585 LD A,(DS)
2590 DEC A
2595 JP P,JMA
2600 INC HL
2605 OR A
2610 LD DE,22496
2615 SBC HL,DE
2620 ADD HL,DE
2625 JP M,JMX
2630 LD HL,(FADDR)
```

2635		LD	A, (HL)
2640		OR	64
2645		LD	(HL), A
2650		LD	HL, (PANIC)
2655		LD	SP, HL
2660		RET	
2665	JMX	LD	A, 7
2670	JMA	LD	(DS), A
2675		LD	A, (TS)
2680		DEC	A
2685		JF	P, JMB
2690		LD	A, 7
2695		INC	BC
2700	JMB	LD	(TS), A
2705		LD	A, (WC)
2710		DEC	A
2715		RET	M
2720		RET	Z
2725		LD	(WC), A
2730		JR	DNB
2735	DS	DEFB	0
2740	TS	DEFB	0
2745	WC	DEFB	0



CHAPTER 9

Error Handling and Parameter Name Passing

Error return handling

The notes on the stack (Chapter 3) mention a method of escape from a piece of code if some insoluble or unforeseen condition is encountered (see also Chapter 8 and the use of PANIC). In such an event it is very useful to be able to output some indication of the problem.

Machine code seems nearly always to be called by RANDOMISE USR . . . There is no fundamental need to do this; Chapter 26 page 180 of the Spectrum manual uses PRINT USR 32500 to print the contents of the BC register (as set up by the machine code); if we code such that they always exit abnormally with BC 0 we can call them by:

```
IF USR . . . < > 0 THEN GOTO . . . error routine
```

or, better

```
LET errorcode = USR . . .  
IF errorcode < > 0 THEN GOTO . . .
```

since we can design the non zero value to have some special significance.

All these IF . . . < > 0 THEN GOTO . . . are unslightly and (worse still) are in BASIC. Look at the variables NEWPPC and NSPPC in Chapter 25 page 174 of the Spectrum manual.

NSPPC tells us exactly what to do. We design the BASIC part of our program such that some line, say 2, is the line to be jumped to in an error condition. Our error exit must then contain:

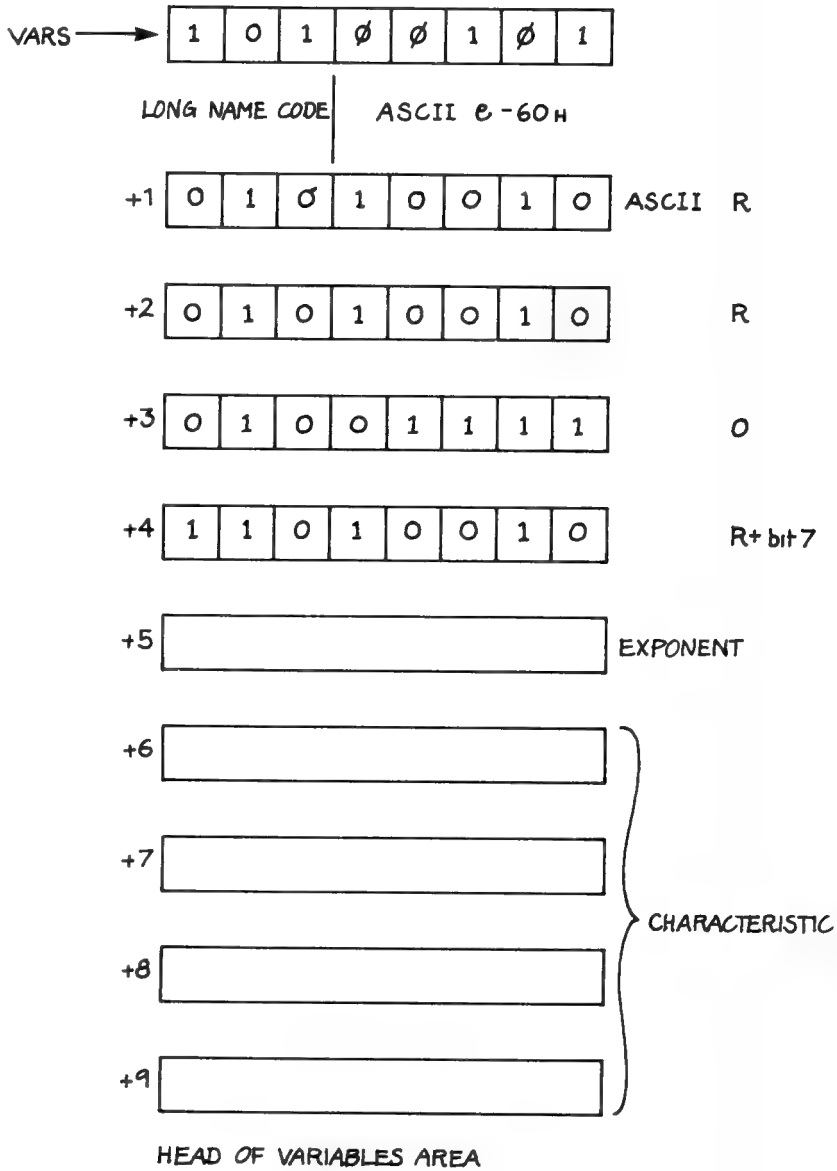
```
LD HL,2  
LD (23618),HL  
LD A,1  
LD (23620),A
```

which pokes NEWPCC with 2 and NSPCC with 1. Lo and behold, we arrive at line 2 in BASIC.

We now undertake to call our routine by:

```
LET errorcode = USR . . .
```


Figure 9.1



and continue normally with the next statement. With any error exit we arrive at line 2 and errorcode contains the value of BC when the exit was made. Strange as it seems, the assignment of BC to errorcode is made regardless of how the exit is made.

There is just one small snag on the horizon. We can use BC as a means of passing information out of the machine back into the BASIC world, and it would be a pity to waste this facility for error routines. After all, good programs like ours do not meet error conditions (!) Can we get the error information out some other way?

Again the Spectrum manual has the answers, well hidden away in the depths of Chapters 24 & 25. It is a somewhat roundabout path but I can promise some primroses by the way.

- 1 23627/8 — VARS contains the address of the head of the variables tables in the BASIC program.
- 2 Pages 166–170 shows how these variables and their names are organised.

If the FIRST executed line in the BASIC is:

```
0001 LET ERROR = 0 : GOTO ...
```

then the head of the variables area will be as **Figure 9.1** and the error routine in the machine code program can locate bytes 5–9 and insert values as required into the variable 'error'. The key here is that the *first* statement in the program forces the *first* variable to be located at the head of the variables area. At any point in the running of a BASIC program the sequence of the variables in the variables area will probably depend on the way in which that point in the program was reached since entries are made, as required by LET ??? = ... statements, as they are encountered.

Our program now looks something like:

```
0001 LET error = 0: GOTO 100
0002 PRINT "ERROR CONDITION = ";error
0003.....error handling routines...
0004

0100 REM program proper starts here
0101
...
0150 LET q=USR...
```

and q is some useful value generated by the routine and passed back to the BASIC program via the BC register.

Note now:

- 1 BC only allows you to get a value from code into BASIC.
- 2 'Error' can, if you want, be a 5 byte Spectrum floating point number of a Spectrum integer value.
- 3 We can now communicate between code and one BASIC variable, and, by extension, the BASIC program.
- 4 We could even change the use of 'error' and use it as an input variable to the machine code.

We can stop here, or go on to develop a method of passing variable names and values (parameters) between the machine code and the Spectrum BASIC program. We need to be able to do two things:

- 1 Pass variable names to the routine
- 2 Given a variable name, we have to find its address in the variables area of the BASIC program.

Let us first formalise how we are going to deal with error conditions.

On program entry we undertake to ensure that the first BASIC variable has a five-character name which will be reserved for passing error codes. We further undertake that our error handling routine(s) will start at line 2.

The machine code routine(s) all commence by storing the current value of the stack pointer for the (exclusive) use of the escape mechanism.

The escape mechanism shall return to the BASIC program the then current contents of the DE register pair, into this first BASIC variable, and force the return to line 2.

Entry to the escape mechanism is with DE set to a suitable code value and a JP, CALL, or JR operation as seems appropriate.

The routine is listed in **Listing 9.1**. ERROR is the stack pointer reset value set up at the routine call.

Listing 9.1(1)

```
1215 ERREX  LD    HL, (ERROR)
1220      LD    SP, HL
1225      LD    HL, 2
1230      LD    (23618), HL
1235      LD    A, 1
1240      LD    (23620), A
1245      LD    HL, (23627)
1250      LD    BC, 7
1255      ADD   HL, BC
```

```
1260          LD    (ERADR+2),HL
1265 ERADR    LD    (ERADR+2),DE
1270          RET
1275 ERROR    DEFW 0
```

Listing 9.1(2)

```
0005          ORG   60000
0010          LD    (ERROR),SP
0015          PUSH AF
0020          PUSH BC
0025          PUSH DE
0030          PUSH HL
0035          PUSH IX
0040          CALL DRAWL
0045          JP    TRAP$
0050          LD    (ERROR),SP
0055          PUSH AF
0060          PUSH BC
0065          PUSH DE
0070          PUSH HL
0075          PUSH IX
0080          CALL SATTR
0085          JP    TRAP$
0090          LD    (ERROR),SP
0095          PUSH AF
0100          PUSH BC
0105          PUSH DE
0110          PUSH HL
0115          PUSH IX
0120          CALL BLOCK
0125          JP    TRAP$
0130          LD    (ERROR),SP
0135          PUSH AF
0140          PUSH BC
0145          PUSH DE
0150          PUSH HL
0155          PUSH IX
0160          CALL SORTF
0165          JP    TRAP$
0170          LD    (ERROR),SP
0175          PUSH AF
```

Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

0180	PUSH BC
0185	PUSH DE
0190	PUSH HL
0195	PUSH IX
0200	CALL GCELL
0205	JP TRAP\$
0210	LD (ERROR),SP
0215	PUSH AF
0220	PUSH BC
0225	PUSH DE
0230	PUSH HL
0235	PUSH IX
0240	CALL MAP\$
0245	JP TRAP\$
0250	LD (ERROR),SP
0255	PUSH AF
0260	PUSH BC
0265	PUSH DE
0270	PUSH HL
0275	PUSH IX
0280	CALL IVERT
0285	JP TRAP\$
0290	LD (ERROR),SP
0295	PUSH AF
0300	PUSH BC
0305	PUSH DE
0310	PUSH HL
0315	PUSH IX
0320	CALL MOVEC
0325	JP TRAP\$
0330	LD (ERROR),SP
0335	PUSH AF
0340	PUSH BC
0345	PUSH DE
0350	PUSH HL
0355	PUSH IX
0360	CALL SVERT
0365	JP TRAP\$
0370	LD (ERROR),SP
0375	PUSH AF
0380	PUSH BC
0385	PUSH DE
0390	PUSH HL
0395	PUSH IX

```

0400          CALL DRAWA
0405          JP   TRAP$
0410          LD   (ERROR),SP
0415          PUSH AF
0420          PUSH BC
0425          PUSH DE
0430          PUSH HL
0435          PUSH IX
0440          CALL DEMO1
0445          JP   TRAP$
0450          LD   (ERROR),SP
0455          PUSH AF
0460          PUSH BC
0465          PUSH DE
0470          PUSH HL
0475          PUSH IX
0480          CALL DEMO2
0485          JP   TRAP$
0490 TRAP$    POP   IX
0495 TRAQ$    POP   HL
0500 TRAR$    POP   DE
0505 TRAS$    POP   BC
0510 TRAT$    POP   AF
0515          RET

```

Passing variable names (parameters)

Chapter 25 page 174 of the Spectrum manual holds an answer to the problem. NXTLIN (location 23637/8) contains the head address of the next line of the BASIC program ie the one after the one which contains the LET... =USR... statement. We might put a list of parameters in this next line, hidden from the BASIC system by a REM statement.

A code call with parameters would then look like:

```

0175 LET y= USR 12345
0176 REM a, b : REM a and b are parameters of USR 12345.

```

Chapter 24 page 166 tells us how to get at the names. NXTLIN points to the MS byte of the line number so (NXTLIN) + 4 is the address of the first character of the text of that line; we step down the line looking for the REM token (= 234) and then we start looking for the variable name which we will specify to end in a comma, colon or an ENTER token. Spaces will be

ignored and integers will be detected as they commence with a digit . . .

STOP !!!

It is very easy to get carried away when designing a piece of program; the specification becomes bigger and better, all singing and dancing, and much harder to debug; so much so that the program, which started as a good idea, becomes a bilious nightmare and is eventually abandoned in a mixture of disgust and despair.

Let us abandon, for the time being, passing numerical values and multicharacter variable names, and restrict ourselves to passing a limited number of single letter variables (which may be simple variables, strings or arrays). We can always go and complicate matters later on.

Flowchart 9.1 is a reproduction of the original flow diagram; **Flowchart 9.2** is the final version which ties up with **Listing 9.2**. The box VAR\$1 is another routine which searches the variables area looking for names (**Flowchart 9.3**). It returns either A=0 end of data, or HL holding the address of the head of the variable name and A = first 3 (code) bits of that name: see below for the details.

The routine does not do exactly what it might have been thought it would do. The letters, brackets and \$ can be in any order and the effective variable identifier is the last letter. The REM statement must be terminated by a colon or ENTER token. It is left to you, the reader, as a simple exercise to remedy these defects if you want to.

Documentation

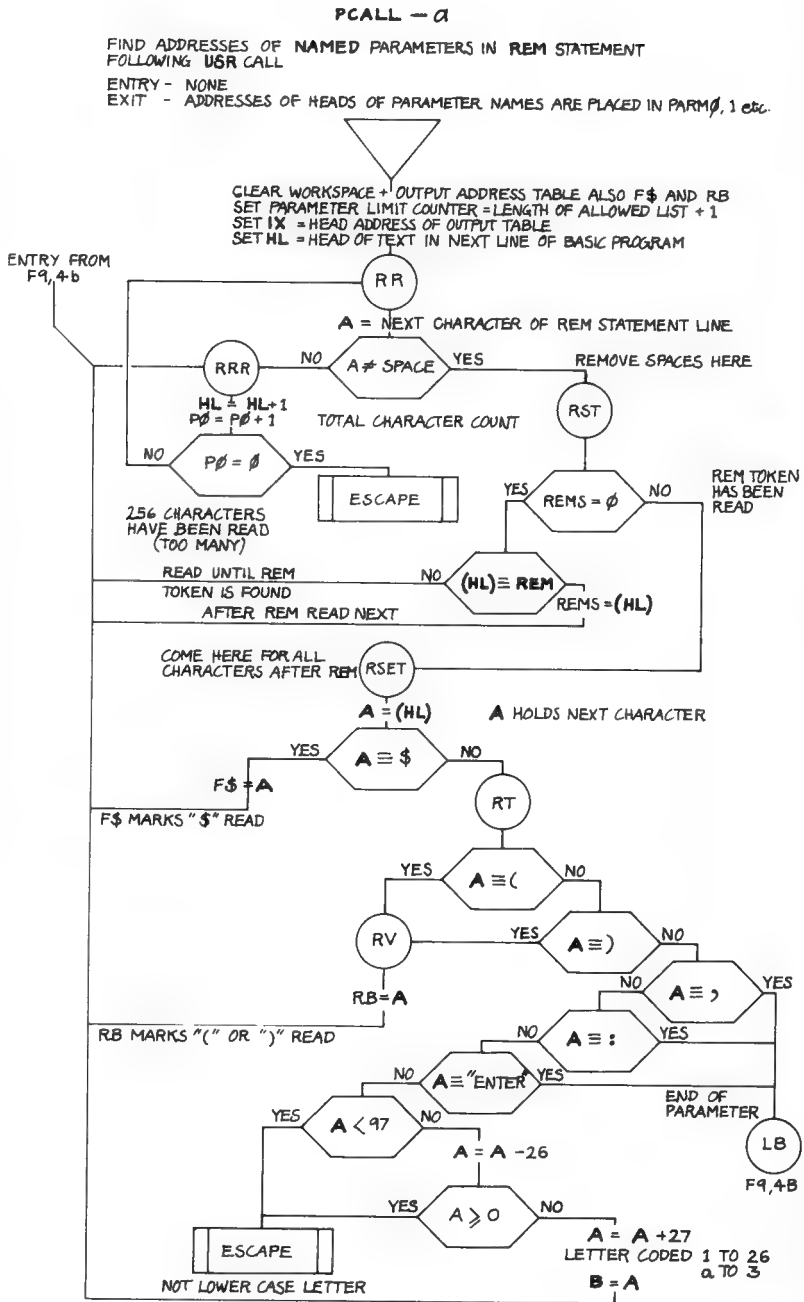
Entry conditions	none
Exit conditions	All registers lost PARM0 - PARM6 are the addresses of the first characters of up to seven variable names in the BASIC variables area. 0 indicates that no parameter is present

Note: The calling routine must verify that the type of the received variable is correct and extract/load the appropriate bytes.

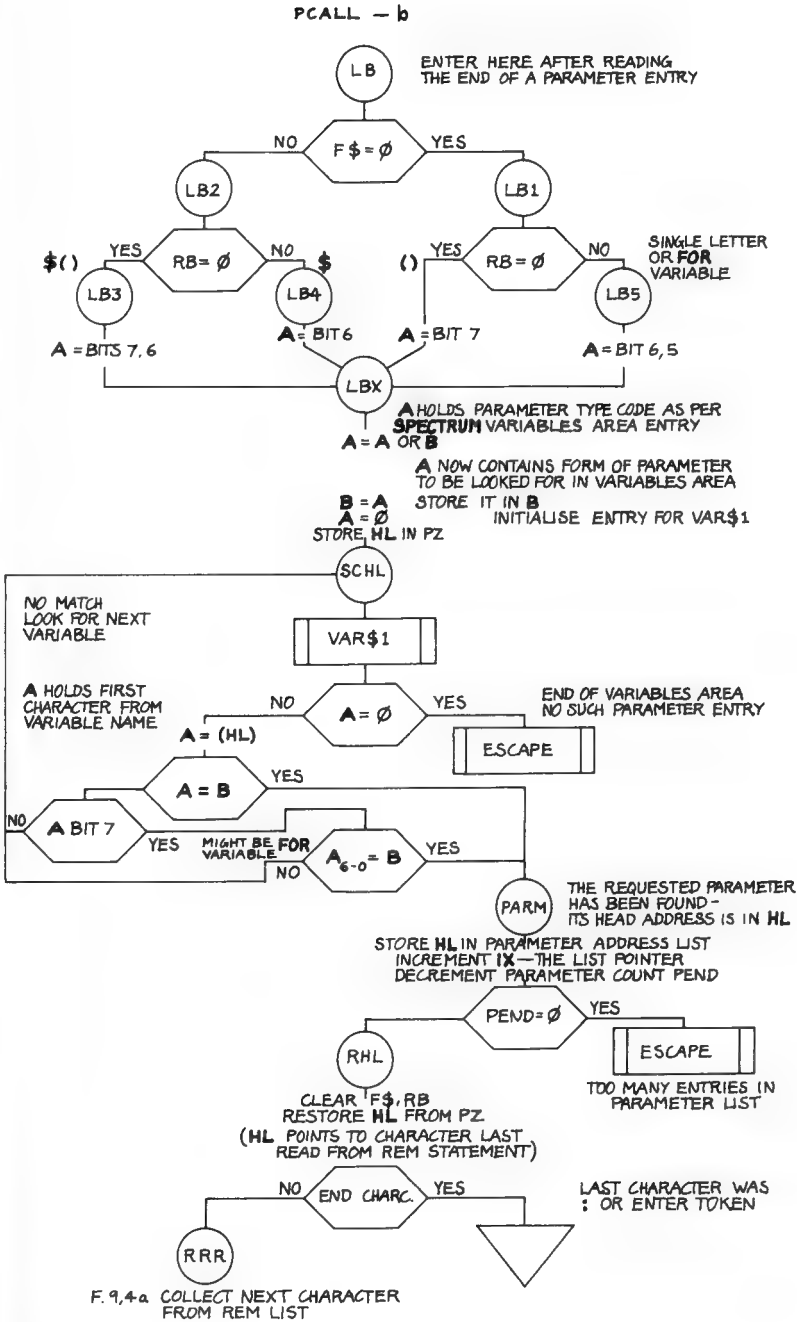
PCALL

The number of parameters to be handled, PARM0, PARM1, . . . is calculated at assembly time and PEND, their count + 1, is set up on entry. The right shift allows for two bytes of storage for each PARM location. For more parameters just add 2 byte storage as required between PARM6 and PEND; the LDIR operation will clear everything on entry. Remember, the PARM list contains the ADDRESSES of the head of each variable name.

Flowchart 9.2a



Flowchart 9.2b



Listing 9.2

```
2750 PCALL LD HL,0
2755 NXTLN EQU 23637
2760 LD (PO),HL
2765 LD HL,PO
2770 LD DE,PO+1
2775 LD BC,PEND-PO
2780 LDIR
2785 LD A,PEND+3-PARMO
2790 SRL A
2795 LD (PEND),A
2800 LD IX,PARMO
2805 LD BC,4
2810 LD HL,(NXTLN)
2815 ADD HL,BC
2820 RR LD A,(HL)
2825 CP " "
2830 JR NZ,RST
2835 RRR INC HL
2840 PUSH HL
2845 LD HL,PO
2850 INC (HL)
2855 POP HL
2860 JR NZ,RR
2865 LD DE,4
2870 CALL ERREX
2875 RST LD A,(REMS)
2880 CP 0
2885 JR NZ,RSET
2890 LD A,(HL)
2895 CP 234
2900 JR NZ,RRR
2905 LD (REMS),A
2910 JR RRR
2915 RSET LD A,(HL)
2920 CP "£"
2925 JR NZ,RT
2930 LD (F£),A
2935 JR RRR
2940 RT CP "("
2945 JR NZ,RU
2950 RV LD (RB),A
```

2955		JR	RRR
2960	RU	CP	")"
2965		JR	Z,RV
2970		CP	","
2975		JR	Z,LB
2980		CP	":"
2985		JR	Z,LB
2990		CP	13
2995		JR	Z,LB
3000		SUB	97
3005		JP	M,ERX2
3010		SUB	26
3015		JP	P,ERX2
3020		ADD	27
3025		LD	B,A
3030		JR	RRR
3035	LB	LD	A,(F#)
3040		CP	0
3045		JR	Z,LB1
3050	LB2	LD	A,(RB)
3055		CP	0
3060		JR	Z,LB4
3065	LB3	LD	A,128+64
3070		JR	LBX
3075	LB4	LD	A,64
3080		JR	LBX
3085	LB1	LD	A,(RB)
3090		CP	0
3095		JR	Z,LB5
3100		LD	A,128
3105		JR	LBX
3110	LB5	LD	A,64+32
3115	LBX	OR	B
3120		LD	B,A
3125		LD	A,0
3130		LD	(PZ),HL
3135	SCHL	CALL	VAR#1
3140		CP	0
3145		JP	Z,ERX2
3150		LD	A,(HL)
3155		CP	B
3160		JR	Z,FARM
3165		BIT	7,A
3170		JR	Z,SCHL

Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

3175		AND	127
3180		CP	B
3185		JR	Z, PARM
3190		LD	A, 1
3195		JR	SCHL
3200	PARM	LD	(IX+0), L
3205		LD	(IX+1), H
3210		INC	IX
3215		INC	IX
3220		LD	A, (PEND)
3225		DEC	A
3230		LD	(PEND), A
3235		JR	Z, ERX4
3240		LD	A, 0
3245		LD	(F#), A
3250		LD	(RB), A
3255	RHL	LD	HL, (PZ)
3260		LD	A, (HL)
3265		CP	": "
3270		RET	Z
3275		CP	13
3280		RET	Z
3285		JP	RRR
3290	P0	DEFB	0
3295	REMS	DEFB	0
3300	F#	DEFB	0
3305	RB	DEFB	0
3310	PZ	DEFW	0
3315	PARM0	DEFW	0
3320	PARM1	DEFW	0
3325	PARM2	DEFW	0
3330	PARM3	DEFW	0
3335	PARM4	DEFW	0
3340	PARM5	DEFW	0
3345	PARM6	DEFW	0
3350	PEND	DEFB	0
3355	ERX1	LD	DE, 1
3360		CALL	ERREX
3365	ERX2	LD	DE, 2
3370		CALL	ERREX
3375	ERX3	LD	DE, 3
3380		CALL	ERREX
3385	ERX4	LD	DE, 4
3390		CALL	ERREX

The RR-RST-RRR part of the routine reads down the next program line until the REM token is found at which point the variable REMS is set non zero, thereafter RST will branch to RSET where the next non space character from the parameter REM statement is tested. F\$ is set if a \$ (string indicator character) is read; RB is set if either (or) is read (array indicator characters), a comma, colon or ENTER token (13) forces a jump to LB and then the character is tested to be a lower case letter. If it is then it is stored, less 60 (hex) in B; any character failing the test causes an error escape which sets DE = 2 and calls ERREX.

When LB is reached a parameter name has been read, and the program LB to LBX examines F\$, RB to determine the required type and form, with the identifying letter, the entry to be looked for in the variables area.

A is set to zero to initialise VAR\$1 on its first call at SCHL. VAR\$1 exits with A = 0 if no more variables exist and the routine escapes with error 2, otherwise, HL points to the head of a variable name which is then compared with the subject being searched for. If not yet found the program returns to SCHL with A non zero otherwise PARM makes the head of the code which stores the head address of the variable in the parameter list and checks, first, that there is room for it. The markers F\$, RB are reset and the routine returns to RRR to read the next character from the parameter list or exits if the end of the list was met.

VAR\$1

The variables area consists of a sequential table of names and data whose head address is given by the contents of 23627/8. Chapter 24 page 166-8 of the Spectrum manual defines the format and coding of all of them and VAR\$1 uses this to deliver variable addresses.

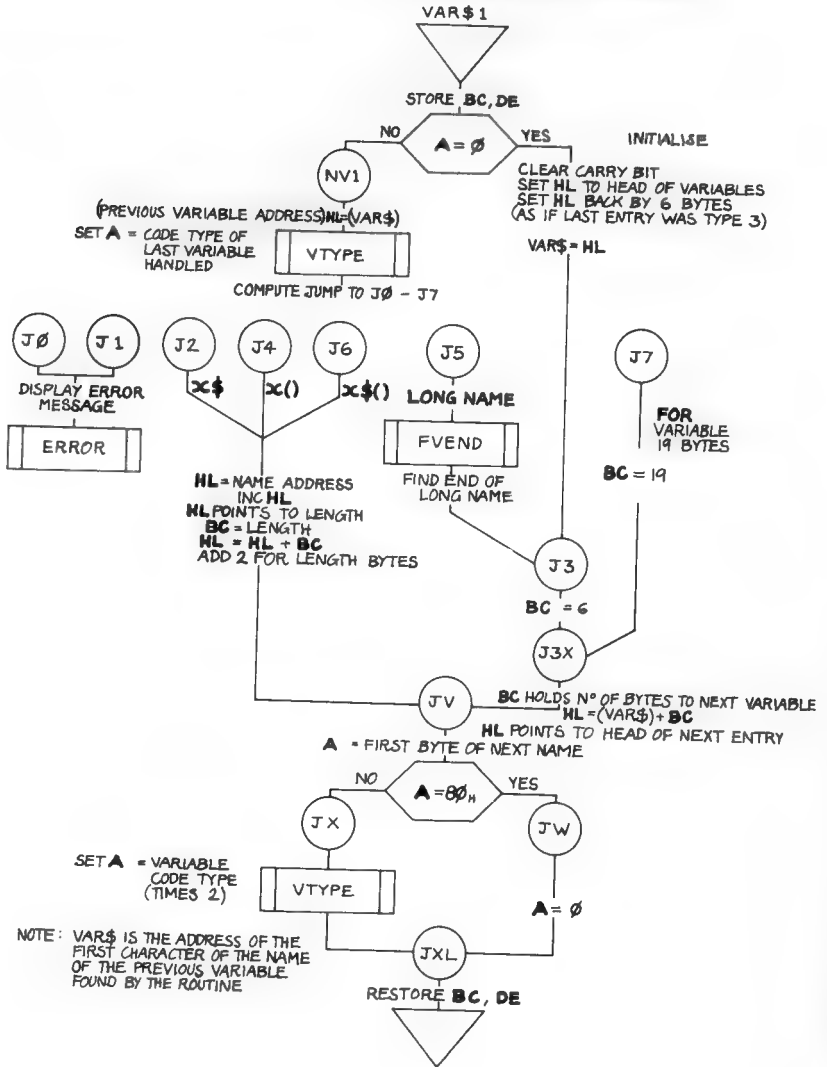
The first three bits of each variable define its type and so enable the start of the next variable to be found. These bits are:

000	not used
001	not used
010	string
011	single letter name variable
100	array of numbers
101	multiple character name
110	array of characters
111	FOR loop control variable

These codes are used to compute a relative jump at JNV to another relative jump which deals with finding the end of this variable and the start of the next. The whole process is started off by thinking of the previous, non-existent variable, as being of type 3 by offsetting the head of the variables area by 6 and jumping to J3.

Flowchart 9.3

VAR\$ 1 FIND ADDRESS OF NEXT VARIABLE IN VARIABLES AREA
 ENTRY A = 0 INITIALISE
 A ≠ 0 CONTINUE SEARCH OF VARIABLES AREA
 EXIT A = 0 NO MORE DATA - VARIABLES AREA END REACHED
 A ≠ 0 A = TYPE OF VARIABLE FOUND
 HL HOLDS ADDRESS OF HEAD OF VARIABLE NAME



The labels J0 to J7 identify the sections of code which deal with the corresponding variable types as indicated in **Flowchart 9.3**. With type 5 the end of the name is indicated by the setting of the MS bit in the last byte, FVEND looks for this and the routine proceeds as if a single letter variable name had been read.

Between calls of VAR\$1 the variable VAR\$ holds the position reached so far in the scan. During the routine HL points into the variables area.

Should the routine start to generate errors, after having worked correctly, I would suspect that the Spectrum variable VAR\$ had been corrupted, or the variables area had been overwritten.

Note on the computed jump at JNV:

The instruction JR J0 is a two byte operation

byte 0 = 24 decimal, 18 hex

byte 1 = offset

Since the whole table consists of such jumps the required offsets will be 0, 2, 4, 6, etc. VTYPE can only produce the eight values 0(1) 7 shifted left one bit, ie 0 (2) 14 and the table covers all the possibilities. The 0th and first entries, both impossible, jump to the error routine.

Listing 9.3

```

3395 VARSS EQU 23627
3400 VAR#1 PUSH BC
3405 PUSH DE
3410 CP 0
3415 JR NZ,NV1
3420 OR A
3425 LD HL,(VARSS)
3430 LD BC,6
3435 SBC HL,BC
3440 LD (VAR#),HL
3445 JR J3
3450 NV1 CALL VTYPE
3455 LD (JNV+1),A
3460 LD DE,666
3465 JNV JR J0
3470 JR J0
3475 JR J0
3480 JR J2
3485 JR J3
3490 JR J4

```


Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

3495		JR	J5
3500		JR	J6
3505		JR	J7
3510	J0	CALL	PTEX
3515		DEFM	"VAR#1 j0 error"
3520		NOP	
3525		CALL	ERREX
3530	J2	INC	HL
3535		LD	(VP+2),HL
3540	VP	LD	BC,(VP+2)
3545		ADD	HL,BC
3550		INC	HL
3555		INC	HL
3560	JV	LD	(VAR#),HL
3565		LD	A,(HL)
3570		CP	080H
3575		JR	NZ,JX
3580	JW	LD	A,0
3585		JR	JXL
3590	JX	CALL	VTYPE
3595	JXL	POP	DE
3600		FOP	BC
3605		RET	
3610	J3	LD	BC,6
3615	J3X	ADD	HL,BC
3620		JR	JV
3625	J4	JR	J2
3630	J5	CALL	FVEND
3635		JR	J3
3640	J6	JR	J2
3645	J7	LD	BC,19
3650		JR	J3X
3655	VAR#	DEFW	0
3660	VTYPE	LD	A,(HL)
3665		AND	128+64+32
3670		RLC	A
3675		RLC	A
3680		RLC	A
3685		RLC	A
3690		RET	
3695	FVEND	LD	HL,(VAR#)
3700		INC	HL
3705	FV1	BIT	7,(HL)
3710		JR	NZ,FV2

```
3715      INC  HL
3720      JR   FV1
3725 FV2  LD   (VAR#),HL
3730      RET
```

Synopsis

PCALL passes the addresses of BASIC variables into your code routines. This greatly eases the problem of data passing and most of the following chapter routines use this or a related subroutine OPARS.

The first BASIC variable is assigned the name ERROR and line 2 of the BASIC program is reserved for error routines.



CHAPTER 10

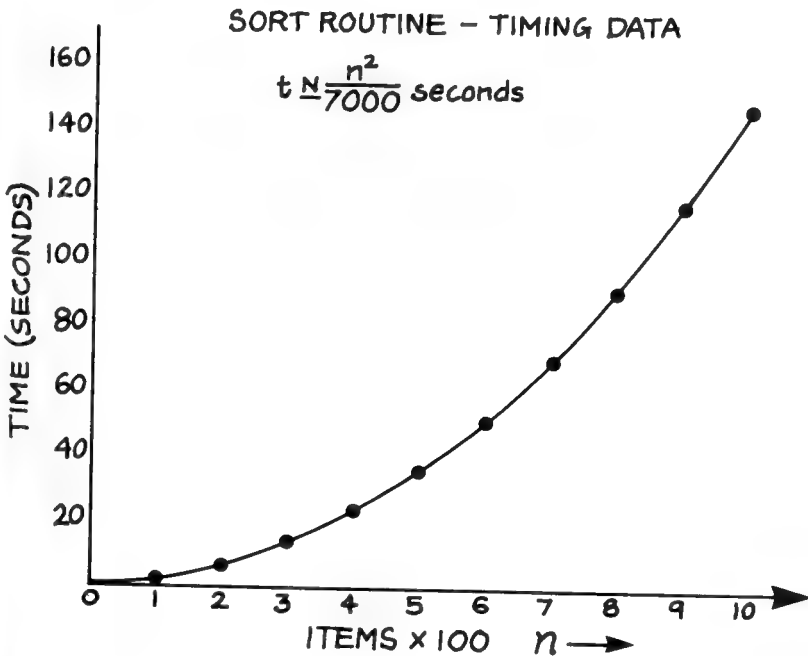
Floating Point Array Sort

“Beyond the mountains the grass is greener”

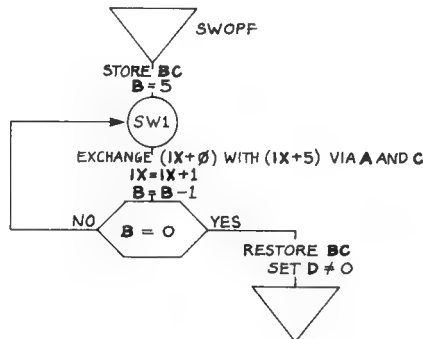
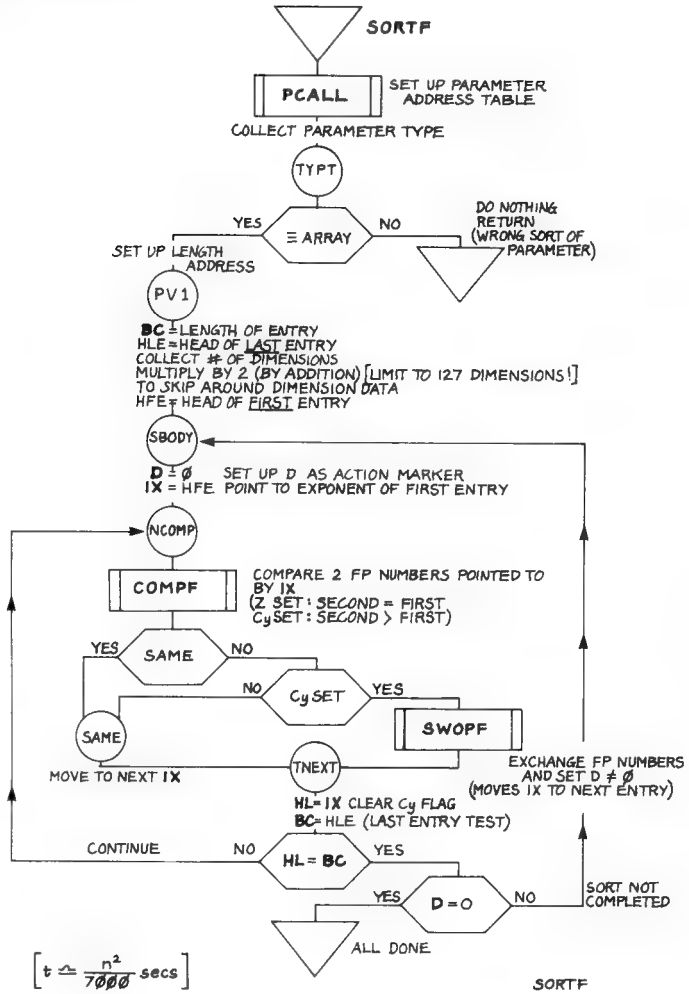
German proverb

For those of the class who have struggled this far, let me present a useful, practical routine, the sorting of an array of Spectrum format floating point numbers. This is a simple bubble sort with no practical restrictions on the size of the array. The time for execution depends on the square of the number of entries and is roughly $n^2/7000$ seconds for n entries — some 125 times faster than the equivalent BASIC routine. For 1000 entries the sort would take about 145 seconds as against five hours.

Figure 10.1



Flowchart 10.1



The bubble sort is not the fastest but it is the simplest. Adjacent entries in the table are compared, and the larger, if it is not the earlier, swapped with the smaller: the whole table is repeatedly scanned until no inversions are made in a scan, at which point the table has been sorted and the routine exits.

The first pass from top to bottom, will always carry the lowest value to the bottom. If the next pass is made from bottom to top the highest value will be carried to the top. With such a process the length of the unsorted table is continuously reduced by one entry for each pass and the time required can be reduced by around 50%. I will leave you to do this — I have done the difficult bits, parameter passing and the comparison of the floating point (FP) numbers.

SORTF

The routine separates into two sections. First the call of PCALL to set up the parameter list and the extraction of the located parameter followed by its checking. If the parameter is not of type 4 (array of numbers), the routine exits having done nothing: then the variables HFE — head of first entry — and HLE — head of last entry — are set up. As we have no multiplication routine the skip over the array length data in the variable area is done by setting the one byte of 'number of dimensions' into A and then adding it to itself; the restriction being that A does not exceed 127! A multi-dimension array is treated as being a single dimension array — the highest value is placed in x(1,1,...)

The body of SORTF is straightforward. The D register is used to indicate that an inversion has taken place — set in SWOPF — and COMPF compares two adjacent numbers. COMPF exits with the Z flag set if the numbers are equal and the C flag is set if the second is larger than the first. The two FP numbers are adjacent to each other and the IX register points to the exponent byte with the lower address.

Listing 10.1

```

3735 SORTF  CALL  PCALL
3740      LD   HL, (PARMO)
3745      LD   (TYPT+1), HL
3750 TYPT  LD   A, (TYPT+1)
3755      AND  128+64+32
3760      CP   128
3765      RET  NZ
3770      INC  HL

```

Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

3775		LD	(PV1+2),HL
3780	PV1	LD	BC,(PV1+2)
3785		ADD	HL,BC
3790		LD	BC,-3
3795		ADD	HL,BC
3800		LD	(HLE),HL
3805		LD	HL,(PARGO)
3810		LD	BC,3
3815		ADD	HL,BC
3820		LD	A,(HL)
3825		ADD	A
3830		LD	C,A
3835		LD	B,0
3840		ADD	HL,BC
3845		INC	HL
3850		LD	(HFE),HL
3855	SBODY	LD	D,0
3860		LD	IX,(HFE)
3865	NCOMP	CALL	COMPF
3870		JR	Z,SAME
3875		JR	NC,SAME
3880		CALL	SWOFF
3885		JR	TNEXT
3890	SAME	LD	BC,5
3895		ADD	IX,BC
3900	TNEXT	PUSH	IX
3905		POP	HL
3910		OR	A
3915		LD	BC,(HLE)
3920		SBC	HL,BC
3925		JR	NZ,NCOMP
3930		LD	A,D
3935		CF	0
3940		RET	Z
3945		JR	SBODY
3950	HFE	DEFW	0
3955	HLE	DEFW	0
3960	SWOFF	PUSH	BC
3965		LD	B,5
3970	SW1	LD	A,(IX+0)
3975		LD	C,(IX+5)
3980		LD	(IX+0),C
3985		LD	(IX+5),A
3990		INC	IX

```

3995          DJNZ SW1
4000          POP  BC
4005          LD   D,1
4010          RET

```

COMPF

Figure 10.2 details the format of an FP number. The routine is quite complicated and might be much simplified. IX points to the first (exponent) byte of the first number whose mantissa is at IX + 1,2,3, & 4. The second number has its exponent at IX + 5 and its mantissa at IX + 6,7,8 & 9. The signs of the numbers are in IX + 1 and IX + 6. If they differ, the positive is greater than the negative. If they are of the same sign, their exponents are compared. In the Spectrum representation the exponents are all offset by 128 and the exponents may be compared and the carry flag tested. The significance depends however on the sign of the mantissa. With positive mantissas the larger exponent belongs to the larger FP number; with negative mantissas the larger exponent belongs to the smaller FP number. The B register is set non zero for negative mantissas.

Numbers with the same sign and equal exponents must be compared byte by byte until a discrepancy, if any, is detected. The signed bytes, when compared, must be tested by JP P,... or JP M,... operations as a carry from a borrow will only be set with a negative number. The remaining mantissa bytes can be tested on the carry flag as they are all unsigned. The significance of the decision at BTL or BTG is decided on the sign, as recorded in the B register, of the mantissa; failing to make this correction will result in the positive numbers being separated from the negative ones and both sets sorted in order of descending absolute (unsigned) size.

Listing 10.2

```

4015 COMPF  LD   B,0
4020        BIT  7,(IX+1)
4025        JR   Z,CL1
4030 CL2    BIT  7,(IX+6)
4035        JR   Z,V1LV2
4040 CL3    LD   A,(IX+0)
4045        CP   (IX+5)
4050        JF   M,V1GV2

```


Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

4055		JR	Z,CL4
4060		JR	V1LV2
4065	CL4	LD	B,255
4070		JR	XEQ
4075	CL1	BIT	7,(IX+6)
4080		JR	NZ,V1GV2
4085	CL5	LD	A,(IX+5)
4090		CP	(IX+0)
4095		JR	C,V1GV2
4100	CL6	JR	NZ,V1LV2
4105	XEQ	LD	A,(IX+1)
4110		CP	(IX+6)
4115		JR	Z,XEQM
4120		JP	P,BTG
4125		JR	BTL
4130	XEQM	LD	A,(IX+2)
4135		CP	(IX+7)
4140		JR	C,BTL
4145		JR	NZ,BTG
4150		LD	A,(IX+3)
4155		CP	(IX+8)
4160		JR	C,BTL
4165		JR	NZ,BTG
4170		LD	A,(IX+4)
4175		CP	(IX+9)
4180		JR	C,BTL
4185		JR	NZ,BTG
4190		RET	
4195	V1GV2	LD	A,2
4200		CP	1
4205		RET	
4210	V1LV2	LD	A,2
4215		CP	3
4220		RET	
4225	BTL	BIT	1,B
4230		JR	NZ,V1GV2
4235		JR	V1LV2
4240	BTG	BIT	1,B
4245		JR	NZ,V1LV2
4250		JR	V1GV2

Flowchart 10.2

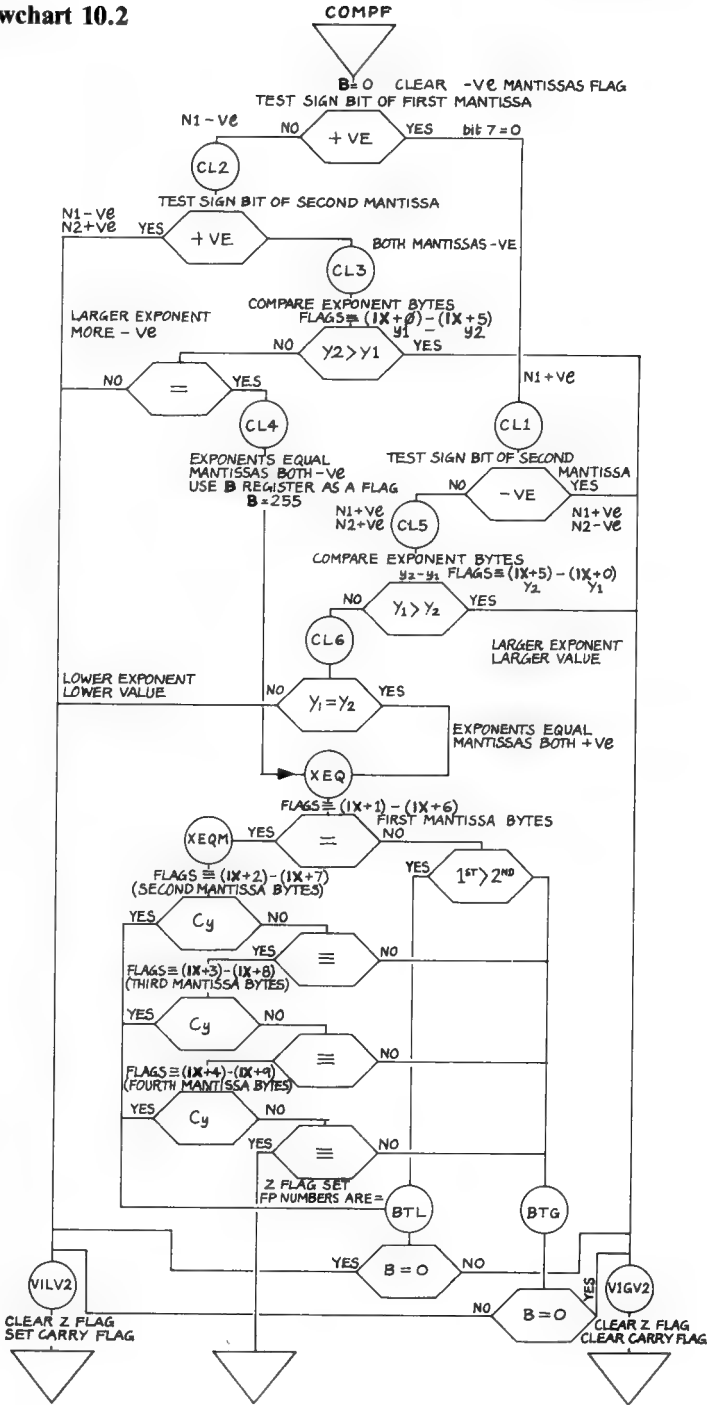
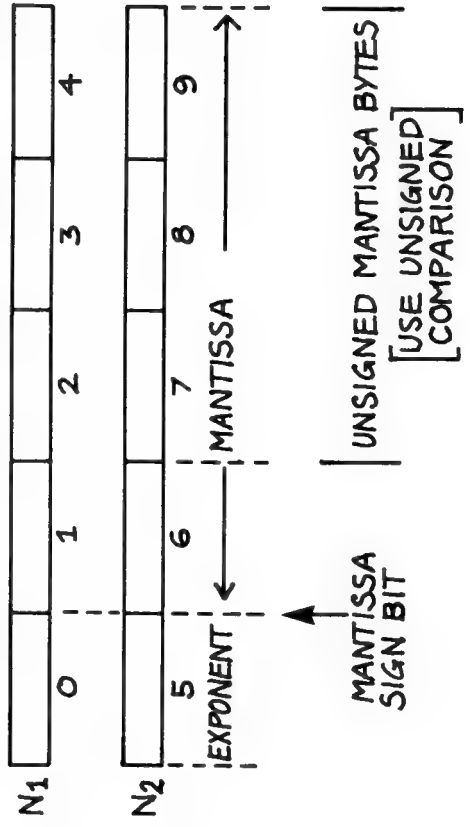


Figure 10.2

COMPARISON OF 2 FLOATING POINT NUMBERS - SPECTRUM FORMAT
THEY ARE IN 10 CONSECUTIVE BYTES IX POINTS TO THE FIRST



SORTF — a practical example

To print a list of competitors in order of descending points. (There are not more than 999 competitors and their points/times may be represented by a number less than six digits.

The data is in an array $a()$, the points of competitor n are in $a(n)$. If we sort $a()$ we will indeed put the entries in numerical value order but we will lose the competitor identification.

If we code in BASIC:

```
FOR n = 1 TO ...
LET a(n) = 1000 * a(n) + n
NEXT n
```

then each entry will contain both pieces of information; as decimal digits the last three will identify the competitor and the others the points of that competitor. Note that because of the way the Spectrum handles floating point numbers the apparent value of $a(n)$ should not be greater than about 1 000 000 000. We can now write:

```
LET I = USR SORTF
REM a():
```

and the array will be sorted with the higher marks first and the competitor number trailing along behind as the last three digits. The n th entry can then be printed by:

```
PRINT INT(a(n)/1000); INT(a(n) - 1000*INT(a(n)/1000))
```

There is just one other consideration. Some entries in $a()$ may be stored in the integer form internally, which will upset SORTF. Before using it, each element must be in floating point form, and the best way to do this is to use something like

```
LET a(i) = a(i) + 65537 - 65537
```

For an M entry list the program looks like:

```
FOR n = 1 TO m
LET a(n) = 1000 * a(n) + n + 100 000
NEXT n
LET I = USR SORTF
REM a():
FOR n = 1 TO m
LET a(n) = a(n) - 100 000
PRINT INT(a(n)/1000); INT(a(n) - 1000*INT(a(n)/1000))
NEXT n
```

which will print the points followed by the competitor number. Where two competitors have the same number of points the output will be in descending competitor number order.

All you need to do is get the data into a() to start with and the routine will do the rest in the twinkling of an eye.

CHAPTER 11

Passing other Parameters

So far we have only a few routines which we call from the BASIC. It is quite easy to assemble each separately (with its own load address and its own copies of common subroutines), load them and remember to call them correctly as required. The drawbacks become evident when they have many subroutines in common and these are needlessly multiplied.

The solution I have adopted is shown in **Listing 11.1**. All the routines etc., are assembled together (or as many as are needed) and they are called through identical code sequences, which are thus all of the same length. First the SP save for the error escape back to line 2 (Chapter 9); then the storing of all the used registers, the specific subroutine call — DRAWL, MAP\$ etc., and finally the jump to the common return label TRAP\$ where the registers are restored and the RET to BASIC is made.

Listing 11.1

```
0005          ORG 60000
0010          LD (ERROR),SP
0015          PUSH AF
0020          PUSH BC
0025          PUSH DE
0030          PUSH HL
0035          PUSH IX
0040          CALL DRAWL
0045          JP TRAP$
0050          LD (ERROR),SP
0055          PUSH AF
0060          PUSH BC
0065          PUSH DE
0070          PUSH HL
0075          PUSH IX
0080          CALL SATTR
0085          JP TRAP$
0090          LD (ERROR),SP
0095          PUSH AF
```

Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

0100	PUSH BC
0105	PUSH DE
0110	PUSH HL
0115	PUSH IX
0120	CALL BLOCK
0125	JP TRAP\$
0130	LD (ERROR),SP
0135	PUSH AF
0140	PUSH BC
0145	PUSH DE
0150	PUSH HL
0155	PUSH IX
0160	CALL SORTF
0165	JP TRAP\$
0170	LD (ERROR),SP
0175	PUSH AF
0180	PUSH BC
0185	PUSH DE
0190	PUSH HL
0195	PUSH IX
0200	CALL GCELL
0205	JP TRAP\$
0210	LD (ERROR),SP
0215	PUSH AF
0220	PUSH BC
0225	PUSH DE
0230	PUSH HL
0235	PUSH IX
0240	CALL MAP\$
0245	JP TRAP\$
0250	LD (ERROR),SP
0255	PUSH AF
0260	PUSH BC
0265	PUSH DE
0270	PUSH HL
0275	PUSH IX
0280	CALL IVERT
0285	JP TRAP\$
0290	LD (ERROR),SP
0295	PUSH AF
0300	PUSH BC
0305	PUSH DE
0310	PUSH HL
0315	PUSH IX

These common entries are all 16 bytes long and the routines can be called as an offset to the load address:

```
DRAWL at USR+0
SATTR at USR+16
BLOCK at USR+32
```

and so on. (The head of) a BASIC program could then look like **Listing 11.2**. This has the advantage that, if the load address has to be changed, only line 10 needs attention and, after the initial setting up, the routines can be called by mnemonics instead of numeral values. (The routines SATTR and DRAWL are described in Chapters 13 and 14).

Listing 11.2

```
1 LET error=0: GO TO 10
2 PRINT "ERROR =";error: STOP
10 LET base=60000
11 LET drawl=base+0
12 LET sattr=base+16
13 LET block=base+32
14 LET sortf=base+48
15 LET gcell=base+64
16 LET map=base+80
17 LET ivert=base+96
18 LET movec=base+112
19 LET svert=base+126
20 LET drawa=base+144
21 LET demo1=base+160
22 LET demo2=base+176
25 GO SUB 70: PAUSE 200: GO SUB 80: GO SUB
200: GO SUB 300: GO SUB 400: GO SUB
9000: GO TO 21
30 LET b=250
41 DIM k$(b,2)
42 FOR x=1 TO b
43 LET k$(x,1)=CHR$ 255
44 LET k$(x,2)=CHR$ 255
45 NEXT x
50 LET k=0
51 LET ol=0
53 LET l=USR movec
54 REM read cursor postion
```



```
56 PRINT AT 0,0;"           ": PRINT AT
   0,0;1: POKE 23560,255
57 IF 1=01 THEN LET 1=65535
58 LET k=k+1
59 LET k$(k,2)= CHR$( INT (1/256))
60 LET k$(k,1)= CHR$( INT (1-256*( INT
  (1/256)))
61 IF k=1 THEN GO TO 58
62 LET m=USR drawa
63 REM k$():
64 LET o1=1
65 PRINT AT 0,6;k
66 GO TO 53
70 LET l=USR sattr
71 REM :0,0,15,11,8,
72 LET l=USR sattr
73 REM :16,12,31,23,16,
74 LET l=USR sattr
75 REM :24,0,31,6,24,
76 RETURN
80 LET l=USR map
81 RETURN
100 LOAD "" CODE : LOAD "" CODE : GO TO 1
200 DIM a(44)
201 FOR m=1 TO 44
202 LET a(m)=RND *10^( INT ((30*RND )-15))
203 NEXT m
204 GO SUB 220
205 LET l=USR sortf
206 REM a():
207 PAUSE 1
208 GO SUB 220
209 RETURN
220 CLS
221 FOR m=1 TO 44 STEP 2
222 PRINT a(m),a(m+1)
223 NEXT m
224 RETURN
300 PRINT AT 3,5;"TILE COLOUR DEMO."
301 FOR k=0 TO 255
302 LET l=demo1
303 REM k:0,0,14,7,
304 NEXT k
310 RETURN
```

```

400 DIM g(5)
401 FOR g=1 TO 500
402 LET g(5)= INT (255* RND )
403 LET g(3)= INT (31* RND )
404 LET g(4)= INT (23* RND )
405 LET g(1)= INT (g(3)* RND )
406 LET g(2)= INT (g(4)* RND )
407 LET l=USR demo2
408 NEXT g
409 RETURN
9000 POKE 23675,0: POKE 23676,150
9001 FOR x=0 TO 224 STEP 2
9002 LET l=USR gcell
9003 POKE 38400,x
9004 NEXT x: RETURN

```

I now have some explaining to do — the REM statements in Listing 11.2. Back in Chapter 9 I showed how variable NAMES could be passed into machine code, but skipped over as too complicated for then, the passing of numeric values and strings. In Chapter 10 we used a passed array name to provide the required pointer(s) for SORTF. Now we will deal with the omissions of Chapter 10.

OPARS (Other Parameters)

These must be compatible with the name parameters collected by PCALL, that is, be present in the same REM line along with the name parameters. The easiest way is to rely on splitting the parameter list into two parts: first the names terminated by a colon and then, after the colon the values and strings. We allow the possibility that there are no name parameters but still insist on the colon as marking the start of the value / string part.

The specification for these parameters is:

Each entry, including the last, is terminated by a comma.

The REM statement is terminated by an ENTER token.

Values are unsigned, 16 bit integers. (Their values are to be found in the variables VPARO, VPARO + 2 etc.)

Strings are delimited by double quotation marks (“), may be of any length and must be terminated by a comma after the closing quotes. A string must not contain double quotes. The address of the first character in each string is to be found in the variables SPARO, SPARO + 2, etc.

No data is passed concerning the relative positions of the values and strings in the parameter list; only their relative positions within each class are preserved.

To enable 0 to be passed as a value a subsidiary byte, SBITZ is used and has bits 7,6,... set according to whether VPARO, VPAR+2 etc. are valid.

OPARS will force error exits:

- 10 failed to find end of REM statement
- 11 non digit in number
- 12 too many parameters (more than 6)
- 13 false read of number
- 14 number greater than 65535

Listing 11.3

```
4255 OPARS LD HL,SPARO
4260 LD (SPZ),HL
4265 LD HL,VPARO
4270 LD (VPZ),HL
4275 LD HL,0
4280 LD (SPARO),HL
4285 LD HL,SPARO
4290 LD DE,SPARO+1
4295 LD BC,SBITZ-SPARO+1
4300 LDIR
4305 LD HL,(NXTLN)
4310 INC HL
4315 INC HL
4320 LD (VPL+2),HL
4325 VPL LD BC,(VPL+2)
4330 INC HL
4335 INC HL
4340 GNB1 CALL GETBY
4345 CP 13
4350 RET Z
4355 CP ":"
4360 JR NZ,GNB1
4365 GNB2 CALL GETBY
4370 CP 13
4375 RET Z
4380 CP " "
```

```

4385      JR    Z,GNB2
4390      CP    ", "
4395      JR    Z,EOPAR
4400      CP    """"
4405      JP    Z,STSTR
4410      CP    "O"
4415      JP    M,ERX11
4420      CP    ":"
4425      JP    P,ERX11
4430      JR    Z,EOPAR
4435      SUB   "O"
4440      PUSH  HL
4445      PUSH  BC
4450      OR    A
4455      LD    HL,(NUMB)
4460      ADD   HL,HL
4465      JR    C,ERX14
4470      ADD   HL,HL
4475      JR    C,ERX14
4480      LD    BC,(NUMB)
4485      ADD   HL,BC
4490      JR    C,ERX14
4495      ADD   HL,HL
4500      JR    C,ERX14
4505      LD    B,0
4510      LD    C,A
4515      ADD   HL,BC
4520      JR    C,ERX14
4525      LD    (NUMB),HL
4530      LD    A,1
4535      LD    (NNR),A
4540      POP   BC
4545      POP   HL
4550      JR    GNB2
4555 ERX14  LD    DE,14
4560      CALL  ERREX
4565 EOPAR  PUSH  HL
4570      PUSH  BC
4575      LD    A,(NNR)
4580      CP    0
4585      JP    Z,ERX13
4590      LD    A,(SBITZ)
4595      SRL  A
4600      SET  7,A

```

Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

4605		LD	(SBITZ),A
4610		LD	HL,(NUMB)
4615		LD	BC,(VPZ)
4620		LD	(VPL2+1),BC
4625	VPL2	LD	(VPL2+1),HL
4630		INC	BC
4635		INC	BC
4640		LD	(VPZ),BC
4645		LD	HL,NUMB+2
4650		OR	A
4655		SBC	HL,BC
4660		JP	Z,ERX12
4665		LD	HL,0
4670		LD	(NUMB),HL
4675		LD	A,0
4680		LD	(NNR),A
4685		POP	BC
4690		POP	HL
4695		JP	GNB2
4700	STSTR	PUSH	HL
4705		PUSH	BC
4710		EX	DE,HL
4715		LD	BC,(SPZ)
4720		LD	HL,VPARO
4725		OR	A
4730		SBC	HL,BC
4735		JR	Z,ERX12
4740		EX	DE,HL
4745		LD	(VPL3+1),BC
4750	VPL3	LD	(VPL3+1),HL
4755		INC	BC
4760		INC	BC
4765		LD	(SPZ),BC
4770		POP	BC
4775		POP	HL
4780	RFORC	CALL	GETBY
4785		CP	""""
4790		JR	NZ,RFORC
4795	GNB3	CALL	GETBY
4800		CP	","
4805		JP	Z,GNB2
4810		CP	13
4815		RET	Z
4820		JR	GNB3

```

4825 GETBY  DEC  BC
4830        BIT  7,B
4835        JR   NZ,ERX10
4840        LD  A,(HL)
4845        INC HL
4850        RET
4855 ERX10  LD   DE,10
4860 ERXAA  CALL ERREX
4865 ERX11  LD   DE,11
4870        JR   ERXAA
4875 ERX12  LD   DE,12
4880        JR   ERXAA
4885 ERX13  LD   DE,13
4890        JR   ERXAA
4895 VPZ    DEFW 0
4900 SPZ    DEFW 0
4905 SPARO  DEFW 0
4910        DEFW 0
4915        DEFW 0
4920        DEFW 0
4925        DEFW 0
4930        DEFW 0
4935 VPARO  DEFW 0
4940        DEFW 0
4945        DEFW 0
4950        DEFW 0
4955        DEFW 0
4960        DEFW 0
4965 NUMB  DEFW 0
4970 NNR    DEFB 0
4975 SBITZ  DEFB 0
4980        DEFW 0

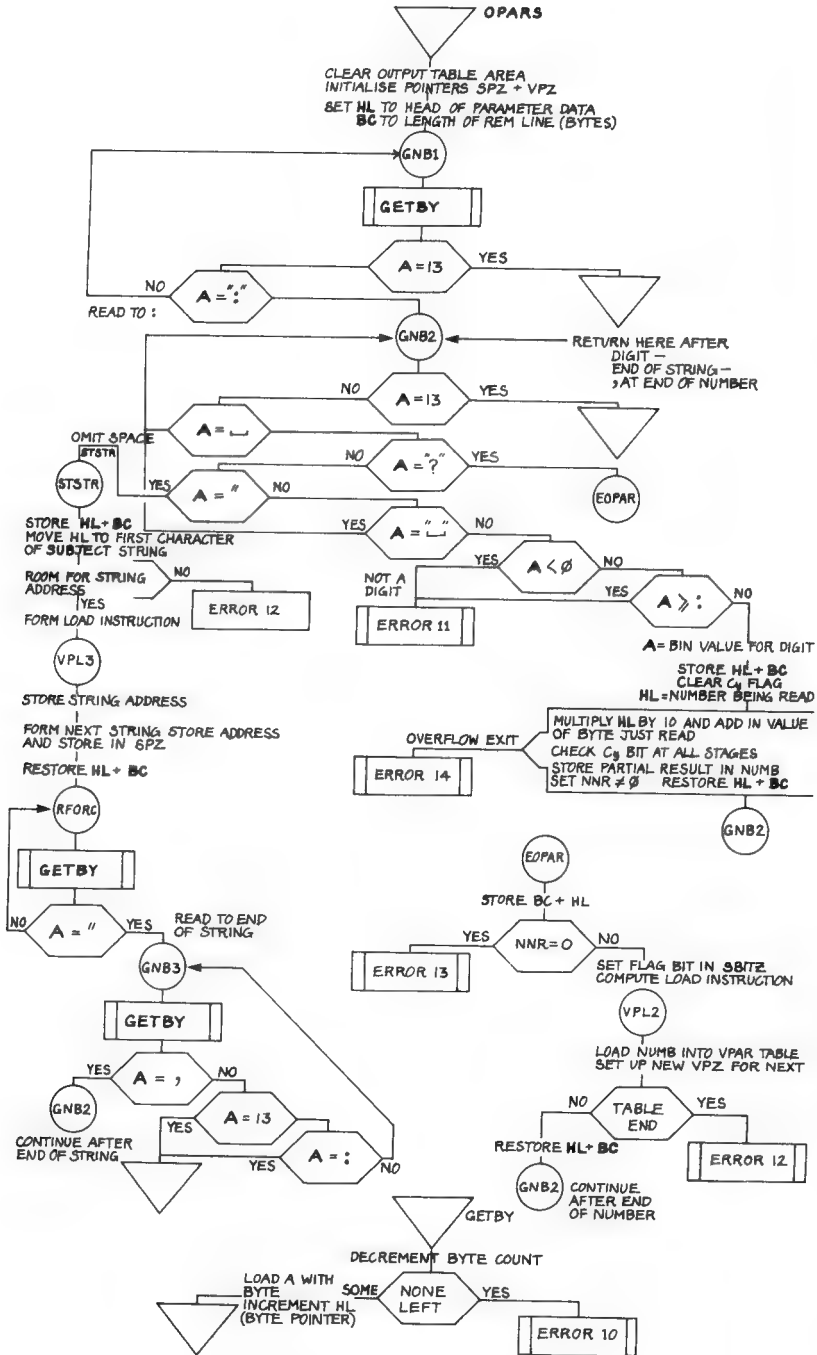
```

Operation

As the routine may well be called many times all the workspace is first cleared and the result pointers, SPZ for strings and VPZ for values, are set to point to the heads of their respective lists, SPARO and VPARO.

At VPL BC is loaded with the number of characters in the parameter line following the call of USR... and HL is set up to point to the first byte. GETBY reads bytes in sequence using HL and decrementing BC (error 10 if BC goes negative) which are preserved for this use; the read character is in the A register.

Flowchart 11.1



At GNB1 characters are ready until either a 13 (ENTER token) or a : is met; the colon marks the end of the name parameter part which may be empty.

At GNB2, the characters after the colon are analysed; a 13 terminates the routine; spaces are ignored; a comma is recognised as an End Of PARAMeter (jump to EOPAR) and a double quote is recognised as the start of a string parameter to be dealt with at STart STRing (jump to STSTR). Anything left must be a (decimal) digit or an error.

Numbers

The ASCII codes for digits run sequentially from 48_{10} for 0 to 58_{10} for 9 and the colon has ASCII code 59_{10} . Subtracting the code for 0 leaves a valid binary representation of the digit just obtained.

The HL and BC registers are saved for their next use by GETBY and HL loaded with NUMB which holds the partial result of this value evaluation (or zero). HL is multiplied by 10 through shifting and addition and then A is added in to give the new partial result which is restored in NUMB. At each stage HL is tested for overflow and error 10 is generated if need be. NNR is set non-zero as an indicator that a number is being read and HL, BC are restored ready to read the next input byte.

End Of PARAMeter (EOPAR)

If NNR is not set, an error condition (double commas or missing value) raises error 13, otherwise a valid number has been read and a new bit is set in SBITZ. If the number were zero the VPAR entry would be zero. So a non-zero entry cannot be used as a test for the presence of an entry as it can be in SPAR for strings since 0 is head of memory in ROM. VPL2 is a computed load address for HL into the VPAR list and then VPZ is incremented by 2 to point to the next two byte entry. If it points to NUMB + 2 the table has overflowed and error 12 is generated. NUMB and NNR are cleared in readiness for the next value parameter.

N.B. The sequence of the labels VPZ to SBITZ should not be altered although the number of elements in the VPAR and SPAR lists may be changed.

String start (STSTR)

HL points to a byte just after the double quote which has been read by GETBY. HL and BC are stored, and HL — the address of the first character in the string — is stored in DE; OR A clears any carry flag and SPZ is tested against VPARO which marks the end of the SPAR list. Error 12 is again generated if there are too many string parameters. VPL3 is a computed load of the restored HL (from DE) into the string address table.

After the string address table has been loaded RFORC reads down the string for the terminating double quote and then to the concluding comma or terminating 13 token.

Synopsis

OPARS allows constants, integer values and strings to be passed into your machine code from the BASIC program. These parameters must follow a colon in the REM statement.

CHAPTER 12

BASIC Block Delete

If you wish to remove a section of lines from your BASIC program, because it has become obsolete for example, Then you normally have to type in each line number in turn, which can be very time consuming. Many other micros have a DELETE a,b or similar command which removes all lines from a to b. The following routine uses OPARS to delete any number of lines. It is best to refer to page 166 of the Spectrum manual while following this routine. It requires two value parameters, both line numbers, and deletes from the first up to, but not including, the second. The technique is one of individual line deletion followed by the adjustment of VARS. The BASIC system should be set up by CLEAR commands both before and, especially, after running the routine.

First some subroutines to collect individual lines for examination (see **Flowchart 12.1**). Note that they are essentially different ways of entering a common block of code.

SUPLN

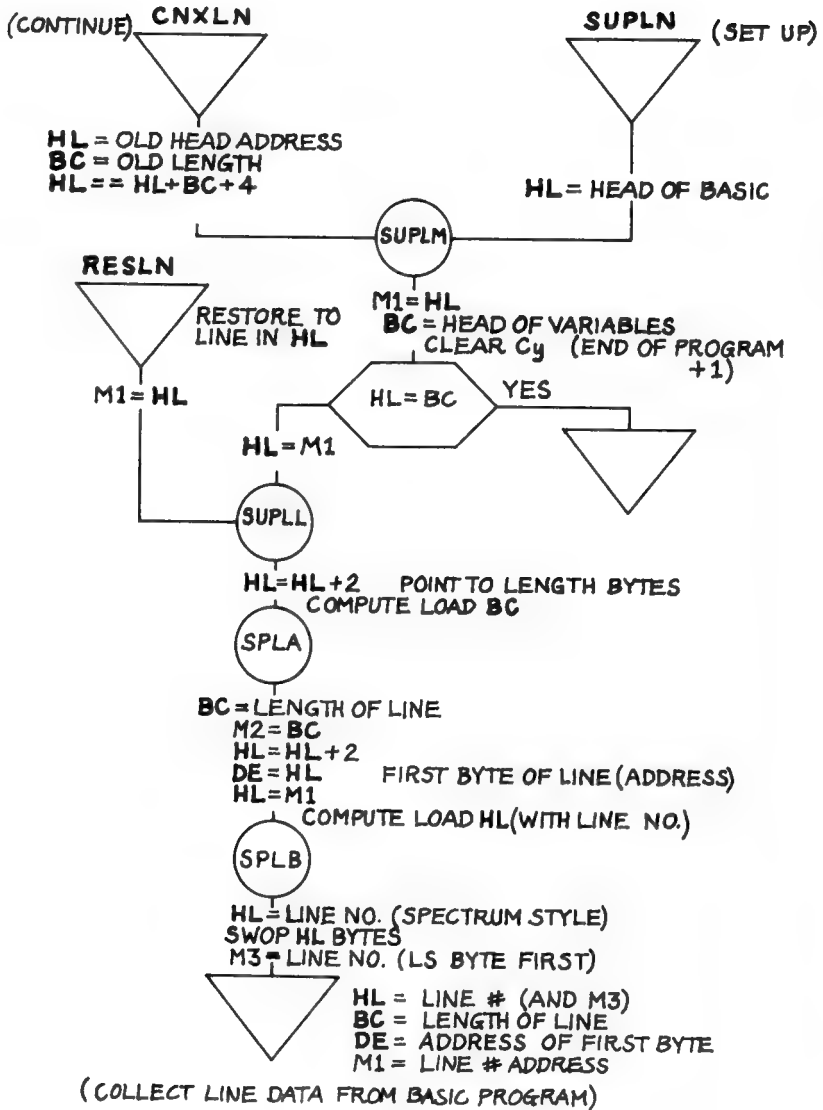
Sets UP LiNe pointers, used by the other routines, to point to the first line of the BASIC program; it and the others all destroy their input registers and exit as follows:

HL	contains the (new) line number
BC	the length, in bytes, of the line of data
DE	points to the first character of the line
Z flag	set if there is no more data

The variables M1, M2, M3, M4, and M5 are used as follows:

M1	address of first byte of line number
M2	length of this line in bytes (= BC)
M3	line number of this line (= HL)
M4-M5	temporary storage while a line is being deleted

Flowchart 12.1



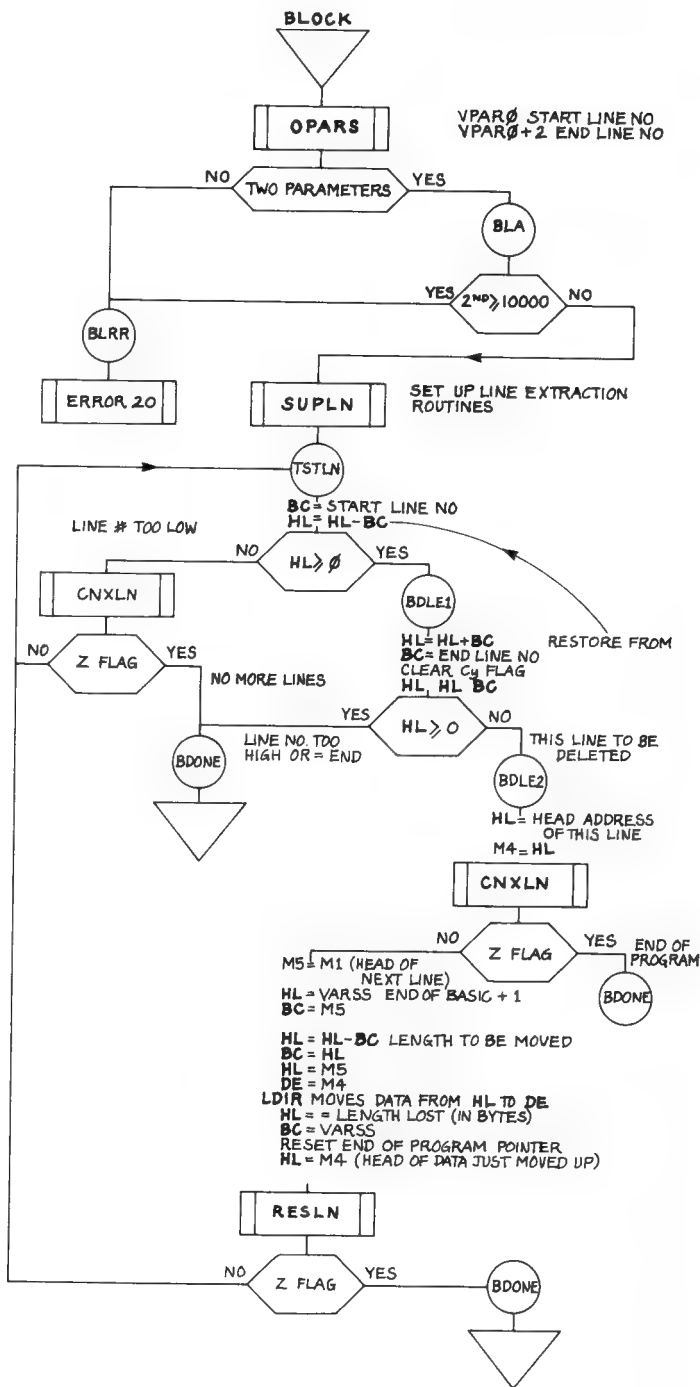
Listing 12.1

```

4985 SUPLN LD HL, (PROG#)
4990 SUPLM LD (M1),HL
4995 LD BC, (VARSS)
5000 OR A
5005 SBC HL,BC
5010 RET Z
5015 LD HL, (M1)
5020 SUPLL INC HL
5025 INC HL
5030 LD (SPLA+2),HL
5035 SPLA LD BC, (SPLA+2)
5040 LD (M2),BC
5045 INC HL
5050 INC HL
5055 EX DE,HL
5060 LD HL, (M1)
5065 LD (SPLB+1),HL
5070 SPLB LD HL, (SPLB+1)
5075 LD A,H
5080 LD H,L
5085 LD L,A
5090 LD (M3),HL
5095 RET
5100 CNXLN LD BC, (M2)
5105 LD HL, (M1)
5110 ADD HL,BC
5115 INC HL
5120 INC HL
5125 INC HL
5130 INC HL
5135 JR SUPLM
5140 RESLN LD (M1),HL
5145 JR SUPLL
5150 M1 DEFW 0
5155 M2 DEFW 0
5160 M3 DEFW 0
5165 M4 DEFW 0
5170 M5 DEFW 0
5175 PROG# EQU 23635

```

Flowchart 12.2



CNXLN (Continue with NeXt LiNe)

This sets up the registers in a similar way to SUPLN, but for the next line in the program. It sets HL not to PROG, as SUPLN does, but to $M1 + M2 + 4$, which is the first byte of the next line.

RESLN (REStore LiNe)

After a line has been deleted the old line location(s) now contains the head of the next, non deleted line. RESLN resets the registers and storage locations for his new line.

Operation of SUPLN

On entry HL contains the location of a line, initially the first one. This address is stored in M1 and compared with the value of VARS. The RET Z will return if the HL has reached VARS ie there are no more lines.

At SUPLL, HL is incremented by two to point to the line length bytes and this value is stored in $SPLA + 2$, which is the second half of the next instruction. The computed instruction at SPLA loads BC with the length of the current line, and it is stored in M2. The computed instruction at SPLB then loads HL with the line number, which is reversed, so registers H and L are swapped, stored in M3 and a return made. In all normal circumstances the Z flag will be unset because no instruction apart from the SBC test after SUPLM will affect any flag. Take care that at the entry RESLN the Z flag is NOT set.

Operation of BLOCK (see Flowchart 12.2)

BLOCK expects two parameters and its call will look like:

```
LET L = USR . . .
REM : 174, 8234,
```

Should the second parameter be less than the first no action will take place. OPARS is called to read the two parameters which will be located in VPARO and $VPARO + 2$ as two 16 bit numbers.

SBITZ is checked to ensure that only two parameters are present (error 20 otherwise) and the value of the second parameter is checked to be a valid line number (less than 10000). SUPLN is now called to point to the first BASIC line and at TSTLN the line number is checked against the value of the first parameter; if the value is too small CNXLN is called to collect the next line and the process repeated whilst lines remain to be checked; if the line number is equal or greater than the first parameter a jump is made to BDLE1.

Listing 12.2

```
5180 BLOCK CALL OPARS
5185 LD A, (SBITZ)
5190 XOR 128+64
5195 JR Z, BLA
5200 BLRR LD DE, 20
5205 CALL ERREX
5210 BLA LD HL, (VVAR0+2)
5215 LD BC, 10000
5220 OR A
5225 SBC HL, BC
5230 JP P, BLRR
5235 CALL SUPLN
5240 TSTLN LD BC, (VVAR0)
5245 OR A
5250 SBC HL, BC
5255 JP P, BDLE1
5260 CALL CNXLN
5265 JR Z, BDONE
5270 JR TSTLN
5275 BDLE1 ADD HL, BC
5280 LD BC, (VVAR0+2)
5285 OR A
5290 SBC HL, BC
5295 JP F, BDONE
5300 BDLE2 LD HL, (M1)
5305 LD (M4), HL
5310 CALL CNXLN
5315 JR Z, BDONE
5320 LD HL, (M1)
5325 LD (M5), HL
5330 LD HL, (VARSS)
5335 LD BC, (M5)
5340 OR A
5345 SBC HL, BC
5350 PUSH HL
5355 POP BC
5360 LD HL, (M5)
5365 LD DE, (M4)
5370 LDIR
5375 OR A
5380 LD HL, (M5)
```

```

5385      LD    BC, (M4)
5390      SBC  HL, BC
5395      PUSH HL
5400      POP  BC
5405      LD    HL, (VARSS)
5410      SBC  HL, BC
5415      LD    (VARSS), HL
5420      LD    HL, (M4)
5425      CALL RESLN
5430      JR   NZ, TSTLN
5435 BDONE  RET

```

BDLE1

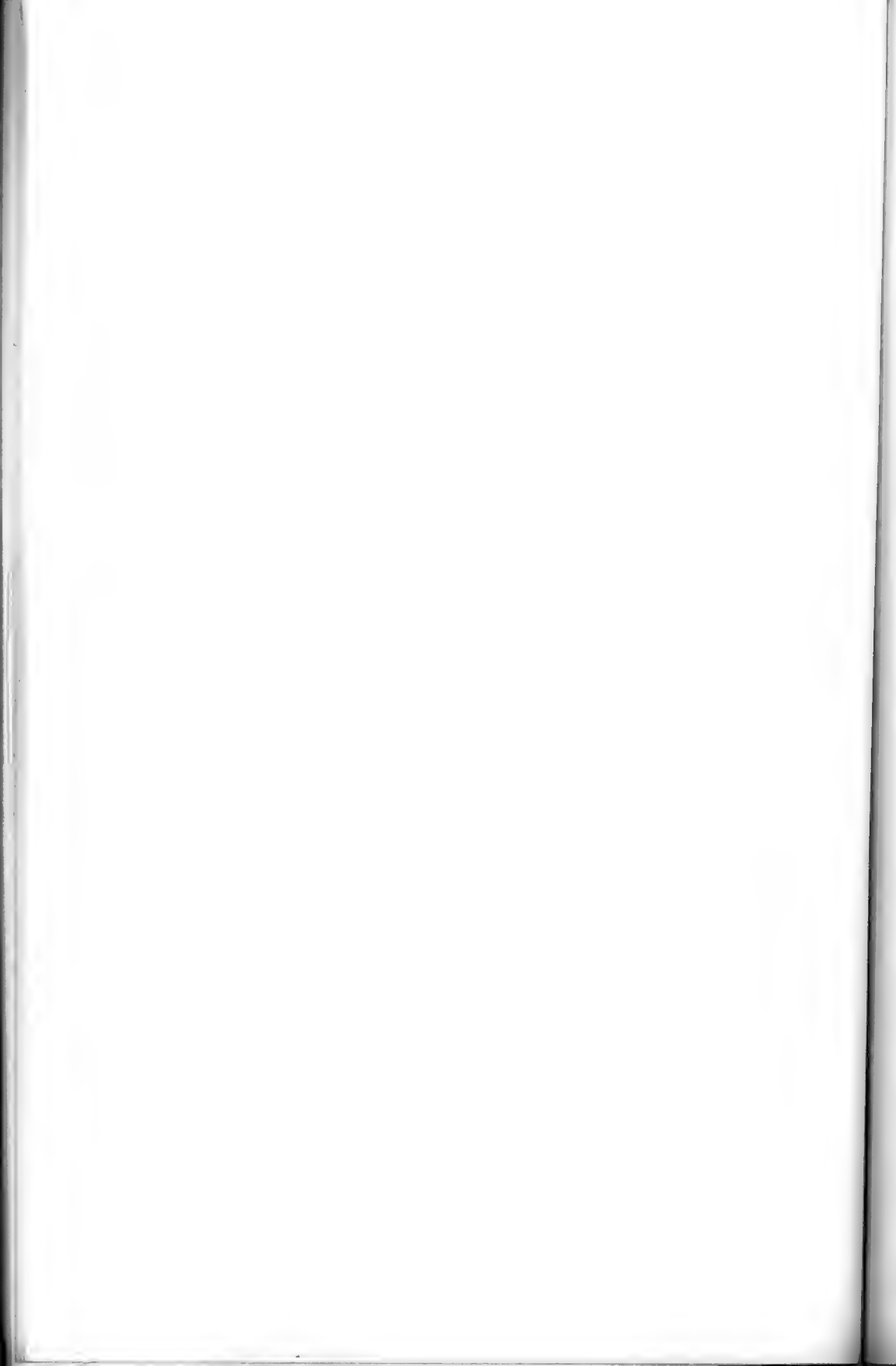
The line number is now checked against the second parameter, the upper line limit. If this is less than the limit the line is to be deleted at BDLE2, otherwise the routine exits at BDONE to the cruel, cold world of a diminished BASIC program.

BDLE2

This line is to be deleted. The head address is stored in M4 and CNXLN is called to determine the head address and presence of the next line. BLOCK specifically will *not* delete the last line of the BASIC program.

BC is loaded with the number of bytes to be retained (from the head of the line called up by CNXLN up to the address in VARS) and DE/HL are set so that the LDIR instruction will move everything up, so covering the unwanted line. VARS is then reduced by the total length of the removed line and RESLN called (with the Z flag not set).

The process is now repeated at TSTLN where the next line is tested and, if need be, deleted.



CHAPTER 13

Setting the Attributes Area

The attributes area controls the INK and PAPER colours and the BRIGHT and FLASHing status of each character square. They are arranged sequentially from location 22528, in the form of 24 rows of 32 columns. This routine allows you to set all or any of the attributes for a rectangular area by specifying the top left and bottom right hand tiles of the area involved, together with the required attribute(s) byte.

The call is

```
LET L = USR...  
REM : Xt, Yt, Xb, Yb, A,
```

The Xs must be in the range 0–31 and the Ys in the range 0–23. The A value is the decimal number, collected from **Figure 13.1** which defines what is to happen at a tile position. Remember, you can disguise a messy screen redrawing by setting paper and ink colours the same to start with and then revealing all by setting them differently when done.

Two errors may be generated by the routine:

30 'top left' corner below or to the right of 'bottom right' corner

31 either specified tile is outside the attributes area

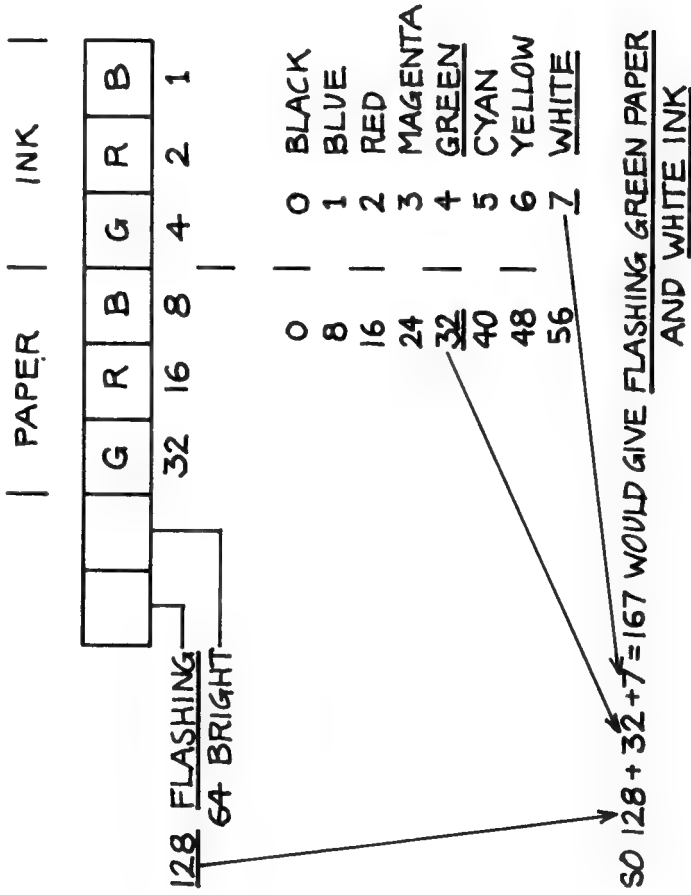
Operation (see Flowchart 13.1)

OPARS collects the value parameters which are assumed to be present, and STRTA is calculated to be the address of the first attributes byte to be loaded.

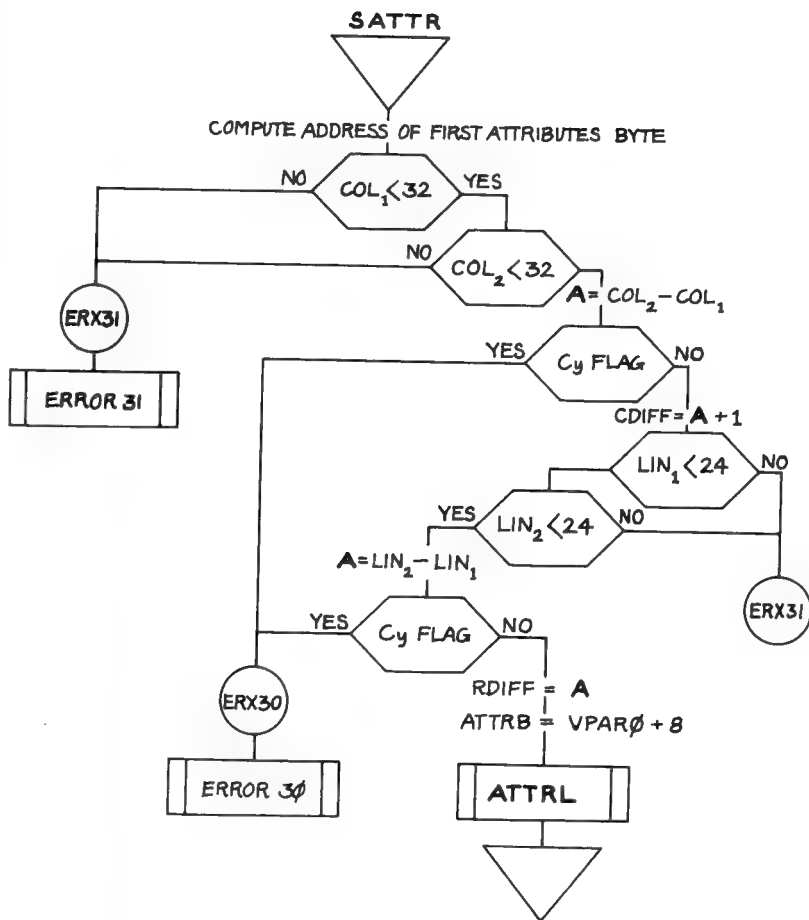
CDIFF holds the difference + 1 in the tile columns (X values) specified and RDIFF the row difference + 1. If either the row or column values are the same a single row or column will be handled. When several calls are made remember that where a bottom right corner of one call is the same as the top left corner of another there will be a one tile overlap with the later overwriting the earlier.

Once RDIFF and CDIFF have been set up the double loop in the routine ATTRL F 13 write RDIFF rows of CDIFF attributes; each row of attributes commences 32 bytes beyond the start of the previous row and there are none of the complications of pixel plotting to be dealt with.

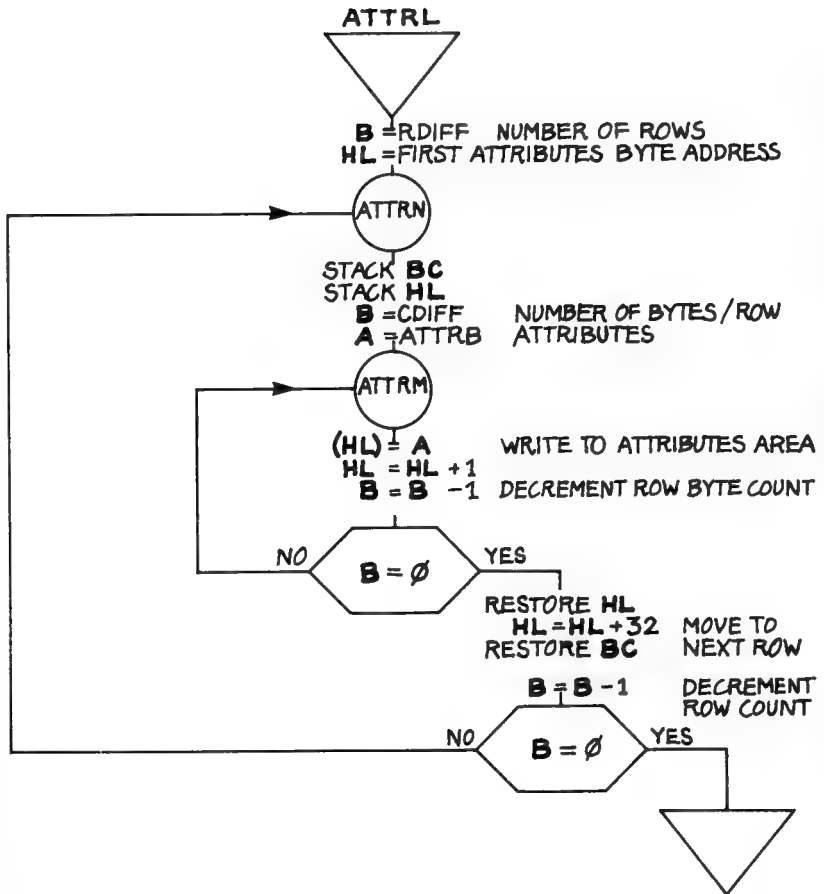
Figure 13.1



Flowchart 13.1



Flowchart 13.2



Listing 13.1

```

5510 SATTR CALL OPARS
5515 LD HL, (VPAR0+2)
5520 ADD HL,HL
5525 ADD HL,HL
5530 ADD HL,HL
5535 ADD HL,HL
5540 ADD HL,HL
5545 LD BC, (VPAR0)
5550 ADD HL,BC
5555 LD BC, 16384+6144
5560 ADD HL,BC
5565 LD (STRTA),HL
5570 LD A, (VPAR0)
5575 CP 32
5580 JP P, ERX31
5585 LD B,A
5590 LD A, (VPAR0+4)
5595 CP 32
5600 JP P, ERX31
5605 SUB B
5610 JR C, ERX30
5615 INC A
5620 LD (CDIFF),A
5625 LD A, (VPAR0+2)
5630 CP 24
5635 JP P, ERX31
5640 LD B,A
5645 LD A, (VPAR0+6)
5650 CP 24
5655 JP P, ERX31
5660 SUB B
5665 JR C, ERX30
5670 INC A
5675 LD (RDIFF),A
5680 LD A, (VPAR0+8)
5685 LD (ATTRB),A
5690 CALL ATTRL
5695 RET
5700 ATTRB DEFB 0
5705 CDIFF DEFB 0
5710 RDIFF DEFB 0

```

Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

```
5715 STRTA  DEFW 0
5720 ERX30  LD   DE,30
5725        CALL ERREX
5730 ERX31  LD   DE,31
5735        CALL ERREX
```

Listing 13.2

```
5740 ATTRL  LD   A,(RDIFF)
5745        LD   B,A
5750        LD   HL,(STRTA)
5755 ATTRN  PUSH BC
5760        PUSH HL
5765        LD   A,(CDIFF)
5770        LD   B,A
5775        LD   A,(ATTRB)
5780 ATTRM  LD   (HL),A
5785        INC  HL
5790        DJNZ ATTRM
5795        POP  HL
5800        LD   BC,32
5805        ADD  HL,BC
5810        POP  BC
5815        DJNZ ATTRN
5820        RET
```

CHAPTER 14

Hi Res Graphics

The Spectrum has a display resolution of 256 pixels horizontally by 192 vertically. In this chapter there are routines to draw lines and move a cursor across it, and an elementary drawing program is also presented.

The only way to draw a line between two points on the Spectrum display is to plot, point by point, all possible points on the line from X_1, Y_1 to X_2, Y_2 and preferably to do it quickly.

One way to do it which gives reasonable results is as follows: find increments DX and DY , not necessarily integer or positive, in X and Y which can be repeatedly added to X_1, Y_1 and which will cause X_1, Y_1 to move towards and reach X_2, Y_2 . This is, in principle, what happens when you draw a line with a straight edge on graph paper.

Problems now arise. How are we to deal with the fractions when we have only dealt so far with integers? Fear not! The answer lies not with floating point numbers but with scaling.

Scaling is a very common technique in machine code programming for dealing with values outside the normal byte or word range of the machine. By way of example we will take the points in X and Y on the display screen to be given by 16 bit numbers; the MS byte will represent actual plottable points and the LS byte the fractional, non plottable, parts.

We take the arithmetic (ie signed) differences between the X s and between the Y s and divide each by 256 (by changing the byte significance) to generate the differences DX and DY . This will always work as the largest difference between two X s can only be 255, but we must remember to treat DX and DY as 16 bit values and propagate their sign bits through the MS byte. To reduce the plotting work to be done DX and DY are both shifted left until their most significant digit amounts to one quarter of a plotted point; more than this results in a ragged line, less takes longer, the choice is yours and you ought to experiment by modifying the routine `SDIFF` which sets up DX and DY before they are used.

Listing 14.1

```
5825 PLINE CALL OPARS
5830 LD A, (VPARO)
```


Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

5835		LD	B,A
5840		LD	A,(VVAR0+2)
5845		LD	C,A
5850		LD	A,(VVAR0+4)
5855		LD	D,A
5860		LD	A,(VVAR0+6)
5865		LD	E,A
5870	XLINE	LD	(Y0+1),BC
5875		LD	(X0),BC
5880		LD	(Y1+1),DE
5885		LD	(X1),DE
5890		LD	A,0
5895		LD	(X0),A
5900		LD	(X1),A
5905		LD	(Y0),A
5910		LD	(Y1),A
5915		LD	(DX),A
5920		LD	HL,(X1+1)
5925		LD	BC,(X0+1)
5930		OR	A
5935		SBC	HL,BC
5940		LD	(DX),HL
5945		LD	(OLDDX),HL
5950		LD	HL,(Y1+1)
5955		LD	BC,(Y0+1)
5960		OR	A
5965		SBC	HL,BC
5970		LD	(DY),HL
5975		LD	(OLDDY),HL
5980		CALL	SDIFF
5985	NPOIN	LD	A,(Y0+1)
5990		LD	B,A
5995		LD	D,A
6000		LD	A,(X0+1)
6005		LD	C,A
6010		LD	E,A
6015		CALL	PLOT
6020	INVPT	OR	(HL)
6025		LD	(HL),A
6030		CALL	LPOIN
6035		RET	Z
6040	GNXPT	LD	HL,(X0)
6045		LD	BC,(OLDDX)
6050		ADD	HL,BC

```

6055      LD      (X0),HL
6060      LD      HL,(Y0)
6065      LD      BC,(OLDDY)
6070      ADD     HL,BC
6075      LD      (Y0),HL
6080      LD      A,(Y0+1)
6085      CP      D
6090      JR      NZ,NFOIN
6095      LD      A,(X0+1)
6100      CP      E
6105      JR      Z,GNXFT
6110      JR      NFOIN
6115 LPOIN  LD      A,(X0+1)
6120      LD      B,A
6125      LD      A,(X1+1)
6130      CP      B
6135      RET     NZ
6140      LD      A,(Y0+1)
6145      LD      B,A
6150      LD      A,(Y1+1)
6155      CP      B
6160      RET
6165 Y0     DEFW  0
6170 X0     DEFW  0
6175 Y1     DEFW  0
6180 X1     DEFW  0
6185 DX     DEFW  0
6190 DY     DEFW  0
6195 OLDDX DEFW  0
6200 OLDDY DEFW  0
6205 SDIFF  LD      A,(DX)
6210      LD      B,A
6215      LD      A,(DY)
6220      CP      B
6225      RET     Z
6230 SDIFH  LD      HL,(DX)
6235 SDIFG  LD      A,H
6240      CP      0
6245      JR      Z,SDIFA
6250      CP      255
6255      RET     NZ
6260 SDIFA  LD      HL,(DY)
6265      LD      A,H
6270      CP      0

```

6275	JR	Z,SDIFB
6280	CP	255
6285	RET	NZ
6290	SDIFB	ADD HL,HL
6295	LD	(DY),HL
6300	SRA	H
6305	RR	L
6310	LD	(OLDDY),HL
6315	LD	HL,(DX)
6320	ADD	HL,HL
6325	LD	(DX),HL
6330	SRA	H
6335	RR	L
6340	LD	(OLDDX),HL
6345	JR	SDIFH

Operation of PLINE

As written, PLINE expects four value parameters in the REM statement, specifying the X_1 , Y_1 and X_2 , Y_2 points between which the line is to be drawn/plotted. These values are collected by OPARS and loaded without checking for validity into BC and DE.

XLINE

XLINE is another entry into the routine used by DRAWL, see below, which draws a series of lines. B, C, D, E are loaded into the MS bytes of X_0 , Y_0 , X_1 and Y_1 and the LS bytes are cleared. Observe carefully how the storage is arranged and *do not disturb* otherwise more instructions will be needed.

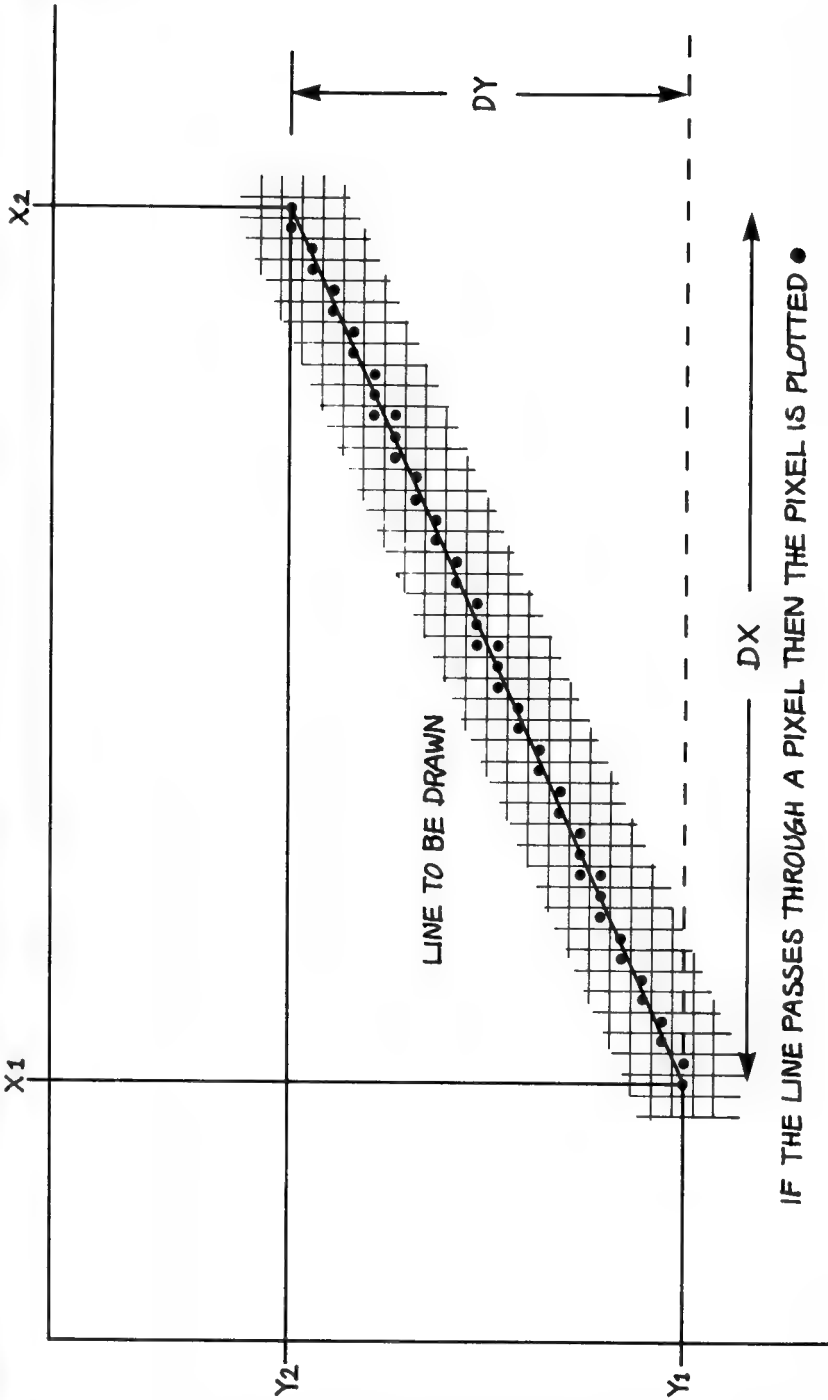
X_1 and X_0 are loaded into the low order bytes of HL and BC, the high order bytes are zero and DX is a 16 bit signed value formed from $X_1 - X_0$; the high order byte is either zero or all 1s.

Similarly DY is set up from $Y_1 - Y_0$. The subroutine SDIFF makes the values of DX and DY as large as possible but not more than one quarter of a pixel step and puts the vaues in OLDDX and OLDDY.

NPOIN

Here the next point is plotted. BC (and DE) are loaded with the coordinates Y in B, X in C and PLOT called. INVPT, which may be an OR or XOR instruction, modifies the contents of the display buffer. X_0 and Y_0 , as 16 bit numbers, are incremented by the fractional values on OLDDX and OLDDY until either the new X_0 or Y_0 differs from the old as stored in DE.

Figure 14.1



This newly computed point is now plotted and so on until the plotted point coincides with X_1 , Y_1 at which point the subroutine NPG returns with the Z flag set.

SDIFF

This happened fairly piecemeal and can be much improved.

DX and DY can be shifted left as long as their MS bytes remain either all 0s or all 1s and then right two places.

Now we can draw a line between two points. You probably won't use it at all because the next stage is more interesting.

Listing 14.2

```

6350 DRAWL   CALL  DFARS
6355         LD    HL, (SPARO)
6360         CALL GVALB
6365         RET  C
6370         LD    B,A
6375         CALL GVALB
6380         RET  C
6385         LD    C,A
6390 DRNXF   CALL GVALB
6395         RET  C
6400         LD    D,A
6405         CALL GVALB
6410         RET  C
6415         LD    E,A
6420         PUSH HL
6425         CALL XLINE
6430         POP  HL
6435         PUSH DE
6440         POP  BC
6445         JR   DRNXF
6450 GVALB   PUSH BC
6455         PUSH DE
6460 NBY     LD    A, (HL)
6465         INC  HL
6470         CP   """"
6475         JR   Z, JRCX
6480         CP   ", "
6485         JR   Z, JRVX
6490         SUB  "0"
6495         LD    B,A

```

6500		LD	A, (BYTEV)
6505		SLA	A
6510		SLA	A
6515		LD	C, A
6520		LD	A, (BYTEV)
6525		ADD	C
6530		SLA	A
6535		ADD	B
6540		LD	(BYTEV), A
6545		JR	NBY
6550	JRVX	LD	A, (BYTEV)
6555		LD	B, A
6560		LD	A, 0
6565		LD	(BYTEV), A
6570		LD	A, B
6575		OR	A
6580		POP	DE
6585		POP	BC
6590		RET	
6595	JRCX	SCF	
6600		POP	DE
6605		POP	BC
6610		RET	
6615	BYTEV	DEFB	0

DRAWL: Draw a list of lines

DRAWL has but one parameter, a string whose contents is a list of digits and commas which are interpreted as being X, Y pairs and the routine draws from pair 1 to pair 2 to pair 3 and so on to the end of the list. Note again that there are no validity checks on the sizes of the values except that GVAL8 only passes the LS 8 bytes of whatever value it finds; these checks can be inserted if you need them.

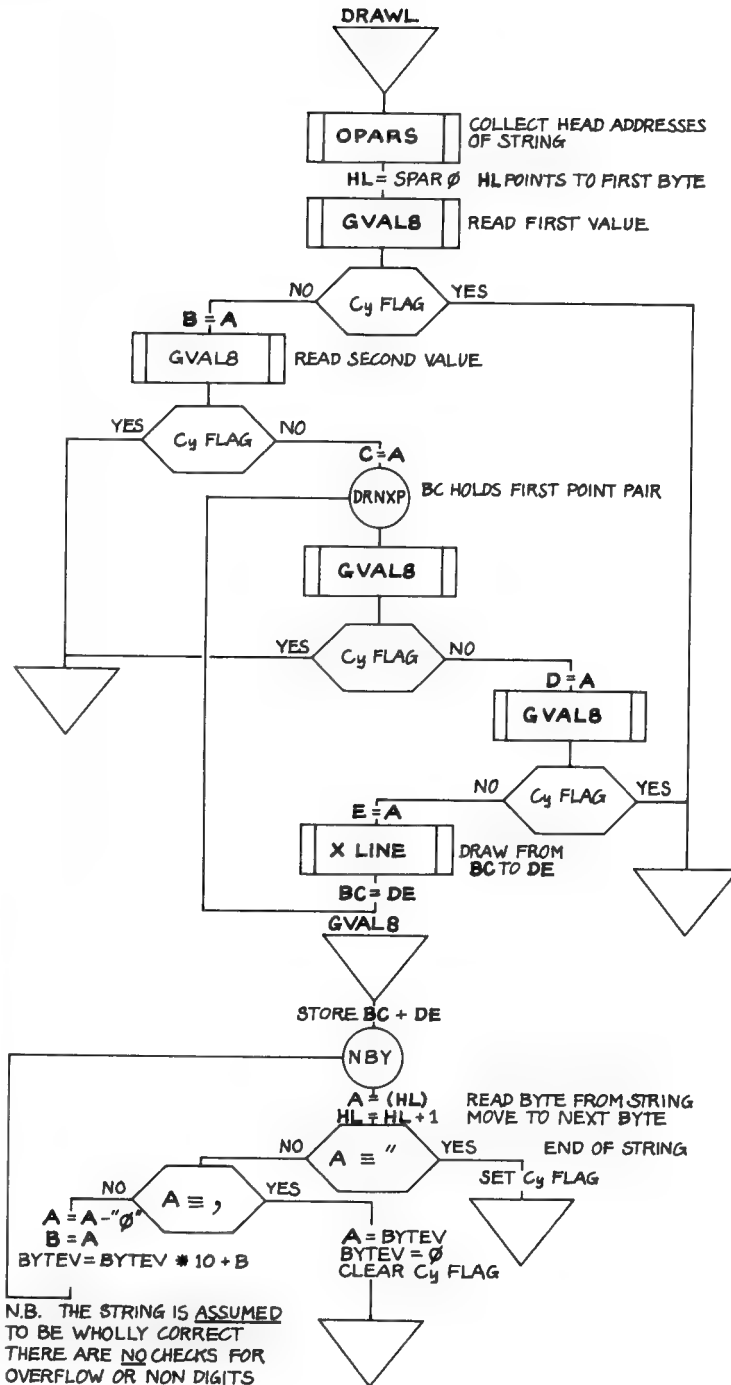
OPARS collects one string parameter and then GVAL8 recovers byte values from the string in a very primitive manner to load C, B, E, D for the call of XLINE to draw a line from BC to DE.

DE is transferred into DE and DE loaded with the next point position and the line BC to DE drawn; the process continues till GVAL8 exits with the carry flag set as a result of the exhaustion of the data string.

GVAL8

This is entered with HL pointing into the parameter string; A is loaded with the next character which is assumed to be:

Flowchart 14.2



a " marking the end of the string,
or a, marking the end of a value
or a digit. Non digits are not rejected but macerated.

BYTEV: BYTe EValuated

This is formed by shifting and adding to multiply by 10 and then adding in the binary value of the character, assumed to be a digit. There are no checks and the process continues till a comma is read.

Now we can draw lines what about undrawing them?

This is not too difficult. Change the OR (HL) at INVPT (invert plot) to XOR (HL) and all will be well so long as we retrace our steps precisely. Since there are, or may be, many points where this change is to be made the subroutine IVERT contains what amounts to a list of bytes which are to be changed. Repeated calls of IVERT change backwards and forwards; for those of us who get lost there is SVERT which sets all such options to OR for draw.

Listing 14.3

```
6620 IVERT LD A, (INVPT)
6625 LD B, A
6630 LD A, (CHNGE)
6635 LD (INVPT), A
6640 LD (INVRX), A
6645 LD A, B
6650 LD (CHNGE), A
6655 RET
6660 CHNGE XOR (HL)
6665 SVERT LD A, (INVPT)
6670 LD B, A
6675 LD A, (XOROP)
6680 CP B
6685 RET NZ
6690 CALL IVERT
6695 RET
6700 XOROP XOR (HL)
```

MOVEC

This move cursor routine operates by plotting and unplotting a diamond of points. For faster movement you must either increment the cursor position by more than one pixel step or flit from tile to tile.

The basis is an IFKEY call which operates as follows:

5,6,7 & 8 keys move the cursor in the obvious directions

- s sets slow movement
- f sets fast movement
- x sets single step movement
- p causes the routine to exit, and yield up the cursor position. These keys are all in lower case.

A call LET L = USR... assigns to L, when the p key is operated, the current cursor position which may be unravelled by the BASIC program; prolonged depression of the key causes repeated outputs of the same position. On the first call the cursor is positioned near centre screen but repeated calls pick up the cursor from its last known position.

Listing 14.4

```

6705 MOVEC CALL SVERT
6710      CALL CURSR
6715      CALL IVERT
6720 MFAST LD  A,1
6725      LD  (23561),A
6730      LD  (23562),A
6735 CIFKE CALL IFKEY
6740      DEFB "8"
6745      JP  MRGHT
6750      DEFB "5"
6755      JP  MLEFT
6760      DEFB "7"
6765      JP  MUPUP
6770      DEFB "6"
6775      JP  MDOWN
6780      DEFB "p"
6785      JP  MEXIT
6790      DEFB "f"
6795      JP  MFAST
6800      DEFB "s"
6805      JP  MSLOW
6810      DEFB "x"
6815      JP  MSTEP
6820      NOP
6825 MSTEP LD  A,255
6830      LD  (23561),A

```

Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

6835	MFASU	LD	(23562),A
6840		JR	CIFKE
6845	MSLOW	LD	A,10
6850		JR	MFASU
6855	MRGHT	LD	A,(CURSX)
6860	MRL1	INC	A
6865		CF	253
6870		JR	Z,MRLA
6875		LD	(CURSX),A
6880		JR	CIFKP
6885	MLEFT	LD	A,(CURSX)
6890	MRLA	DEC	A
6895		CF	2
6900		JR	Z,MRL1
6905		LD	(CURSX),A
6910		JR	CIFKP
6915	MUPUP	LD	A,(CURSY)
6920	MUPL1	DEC	A
6925		CF	2
6930		JR	Z,MDWNA
6935		LD	(CURSY),A
6940		JR	CIFKP
6945	MDOWN	LD	A,(CURSY)
6950	MDWNA	INC	A
6955		CF	188
6960		JR	Z,MUPL1
6965		LD	(CURSY),A
6970		JR	CIFKP
6975	CURSX	DEFB	125
6980	CURSY	DEFB	88
6985	CIFKP	CALL	CROSS
6990		CALL	IVERT
6995		CALL	CURSR
7000		CALL	IVERT
7005		JR	CIFKE
7010	PL0A	DEFB	254
7015		DEFB	254
7020	PL0B	DEFB	254
7025		DEFB	+2
7030	PL0C	DEFB	+2
7035		DEFB	+2
7040	PL0D	DEFB	+2
7045		DEFB	254
7050	PL0AT	DEFW	0

```

7055 PLOBT  DEFW 0
7060 PLOCT  DEFW 0
7065 PLODT  DEFW 0
7070 CURSR  LD   BC, (CURSX)
7075        LD   HL, (PLOA)
7080        ADD  HL, BC
7085        LD   (FLOAT), HL
7090        LD   HL, (PLOB)
7095        ADD  HL, BC
7100        LD   (PLOBT), HL
7105        LD   HL, (PLOC)
7110        ADD  HL, BC
7115        LD   (PLOCT), HL
7120        LD   HL, (PLOD)
7125        ADD  HL, BC
7130        LD   (PLODT), HL
7135        CALL CROSS
7140        RET
7145 CROSS  LD   BC, (PLODT)
7150        CALL XPLOT
7155        LD   BC, (PLOBT)
7160        CALL XPLOT
7165        LD   BC, (FLOAT)
7170        CALL XPLOT
7175        LD   BC, (PLOCT)
7180        CALL XPLOT
7185        RET
7190 XPLOT  CALL PLOT
7195 INVRX  OR   (HL)
7200        LD   (HL), A
7205        RET
7210 MEXIT  CALL SVERT
7215        POP  IX
7220        POP  HL
7225        POP  DE
7230        POP  BC
7235        LD   BC, (CURSX)
7240        LD   A, 5
7245        LD   (23562), A
7250        LD   A, 35
7255        LD   (23561), A
7260        JP   TRAT$

```

Operation of MOVEC

The routine is so simple that by now you should not need a flow diagram but be able to work directly from the listing.

SVERT sets the plotting routine to a known state and then the Spectrum variables REPDEL and REPPER are set to their minimum values to give the fastest possible movement and the initial cursor position is plotted by a call on CURSR. IVERT is then called so that the next call will unplot the cursor diamond before plotting the second cursor position, this gives free non streaking movement.

The routine IFKEY now waits until a lower case menu key is read; the cursor keys 5, 6, 7, 8 cause jumps to MLEFT, MRGHT, MUPUP and MDOWN where the cursor position bytes, CURSX and CURSY are modified appropriately and then prevented from running off the screen; the old position is unplotted and the new plotted before the return to CIFKE for the next key operation.

The x, s, and f keys arrange for REPPER to be loaded with the appropriate values. Note here that one pixel vertically covers three television scan lines.

Other details

PLOA, PLOB, PLOC, and PLOD define the four diamond points with respect to the cursor position so that the actual cursor plot points may be obtained by the addition of CURSX, considered with CURSY, as a two byte value to these four points. These additions give the points PLOAT, PLOBT, PLOCT, and PLODT which are then plotted/unplotted by CROSS and XPLOT (according to the state of INVRX which is set by IVERT or SVERT).

When p is pressed, the routine exits through MEXIT which restores all the registers, except BC which it sets to the CURSOR position. As is usual with my routines the positions of byte/word declarations is important.

DRAWA: Draw Array

With this subroutine and MOVEC you can build a simple drawing program as sketched out in **Listing 14.5b**.

DRAWL looks for its data as point values in a REM parameter list. DRAWA is a variant on the same theme but this time the data is to be found in a two dimensional byte array which must be defined as:

```
DIM ?$(..., 2)
```

where ? is any suitable array reference and ... is as large as need be. The character pair ?\$(p,1) and ?\$(p,2) contain the x and y plot values for the point p as one byte values. If the y value is off screen the point is omitted;

this enables a line sequence to be broken as required. The insertion of the off screen marker is a matter of convenience.

Listing 14.5a

```

7265 DRAWA CALL PCALL
7270      LD HL, (PARMO)
7275      LD (DPL+1),HL
7280 DPL  LD A, (DPL+1)
7285      AND 128+64+32
7290      CP 128+64
7295      JR Z,DL1
7300 ERX40 LD DE,40
7305      CALL ERREX
7310 DL1  LD HL, (DPL+1)
7315      INC HL
7320      LD (DPLB+2),HL
7325 DPLB LD BC, (DPLB+2)
7330      INC HL
7335      INC HL
7340      LD A, (HL)
7345      CP 2
7350      JR Z,DL2
7355 ERX41 LD DE,41
7360      CALL ERREX
7365 DL2  INC HL
7370      INC HL
7375      INC HL
7380      LD A, (HL)
7385      CP 2
7390      JR NZ,ERX42
7395      INC HL
7400      LD A, (HL)
7405      CP 0
7410      JR NZ,ERX42
7415      INC HL
7420      PUSH HL
7425      LD HL,-6
7430      ADD HL,BC
7435      PUSH HL
7440      POP BC
7445      POP HL
7450 NXPPR LD (DPLC+2),HL

```

Machine Code Applications for the Spectrum

7455		INC	HL
7460		INC	HL
7465		LD	(DPLD+2),HL
7470		DEC	BC
7475		DEC	BC
7480		BIT	7,B
7485		RET	NZ
7490		FUSH	BC
7495		PUSH	HL
7500	DPLC	LD	BC,(DPLC+2)
7505		LD	A,B
7510		LD	B,C
7515		LD	C,A
7520	DPLD	LD	DE,(DPLD+2)
7525		LD	A,D
7530		LD	D,E
7535		LD	E,A
7540		LD	A,E
7545		AND	128+64
7550		CP	128+64
7555		JR	Z,EXT
7560		LD	A,C
7565		AND	128+64
7570		CP	128+64
7575		JR	Z,EXT
7580		CALL	XLINE
7585	EXT	POP	HL
7590		POP	BC
7595		JR	NXPPR
7600	ERX42	LD	DE,42
7605		CALL	ERREX

Listing 14.5b

```
30 LET b=250
41 DIM k$(b,2)
42 FOR x=1 TO b
43 LET k$(x,1)=CHR$ 255
44 LET k$(x,2)=CHR$ 255
45 NEXT x
50 LET k=0
51 LET o1=0
53 LET l=USR movec
```

```

54 REM read cursor position
56 PRINT AT 0,0;" " : PRINT AT 0,
0;1: POKE 23560,255
57 IF I=01 THEN LET I=65535
58 LET k=k+1
59 LET k$(k,2)= CHR$ INT (I/256)
60 LET k$(k,1)= CHR$ INT (I-256*( INT (I/
256)))
61 IF k=1 THEN GO TO 58
62 LET m=USR drawa
63 REM k$():
64 LET o1=1
65 PRINT AT 0,6;k
66 GO TO 53

```

Operation of DRAWA

PCALL collects the parameter REM statement and the first parameter only is used. It is checked to be a character array exactly as specified; error 40 if not a character array, error 41 if not two dimensional and error 42 if the second dimension is not two.

At NXPPR the next (or first) point pair is obtained.

HL points to the first byte pair, DPLC is a computed load instruction, HL is moved on two bytes and DPLD is computed to load the next pair into DE. This will be the first byte pair next time round.

The byte pairs BC and DE must be swapped around for the call of XLINE. The swapping could be omitted but then the point pairs in the array parameter would need to be reversed and this is not the normal convention.

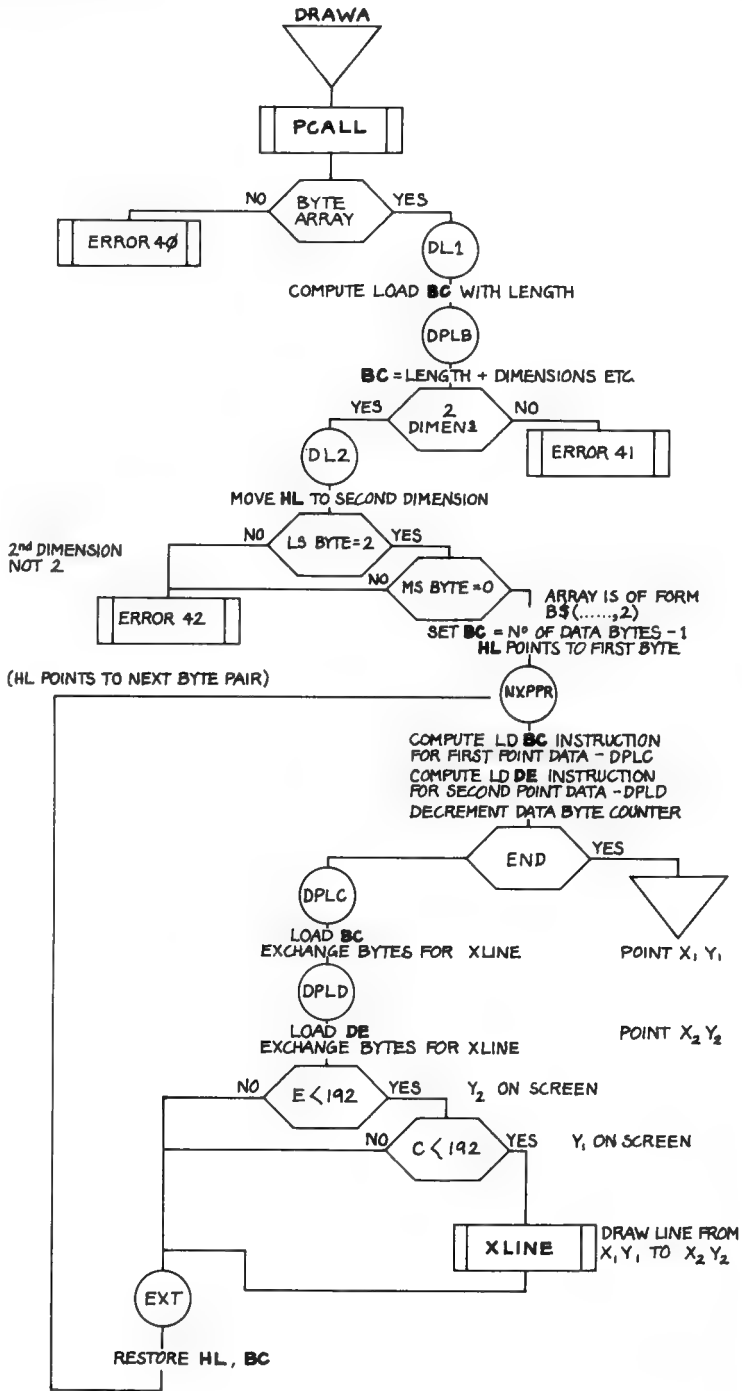
BC and DE, once set up, are checked to ensure that they are both on screen. If either is off the screen the line drawing routine XLINE is omitted and the next point pair is obtained for as long as data remains as tested for by BC greater than zero.

BASIC drawing program

This program using only MOVEC and DRAWA routines enables the drawing of quite complex figures. The keys operate as specified for MOVEC; 'p' causes the cursor position to be transferred into I and hence to the kth slot of k\$(), a repeated point causes the off screen marker to be inserted and the cursor may then be moved to the head of the next desired line.

I leave you with the problem of how to break out of the drawing routine so that you can save k\$(). Hint: you might reserve the bottom of the screen for a menu of some sort.

Flowchart 14.3



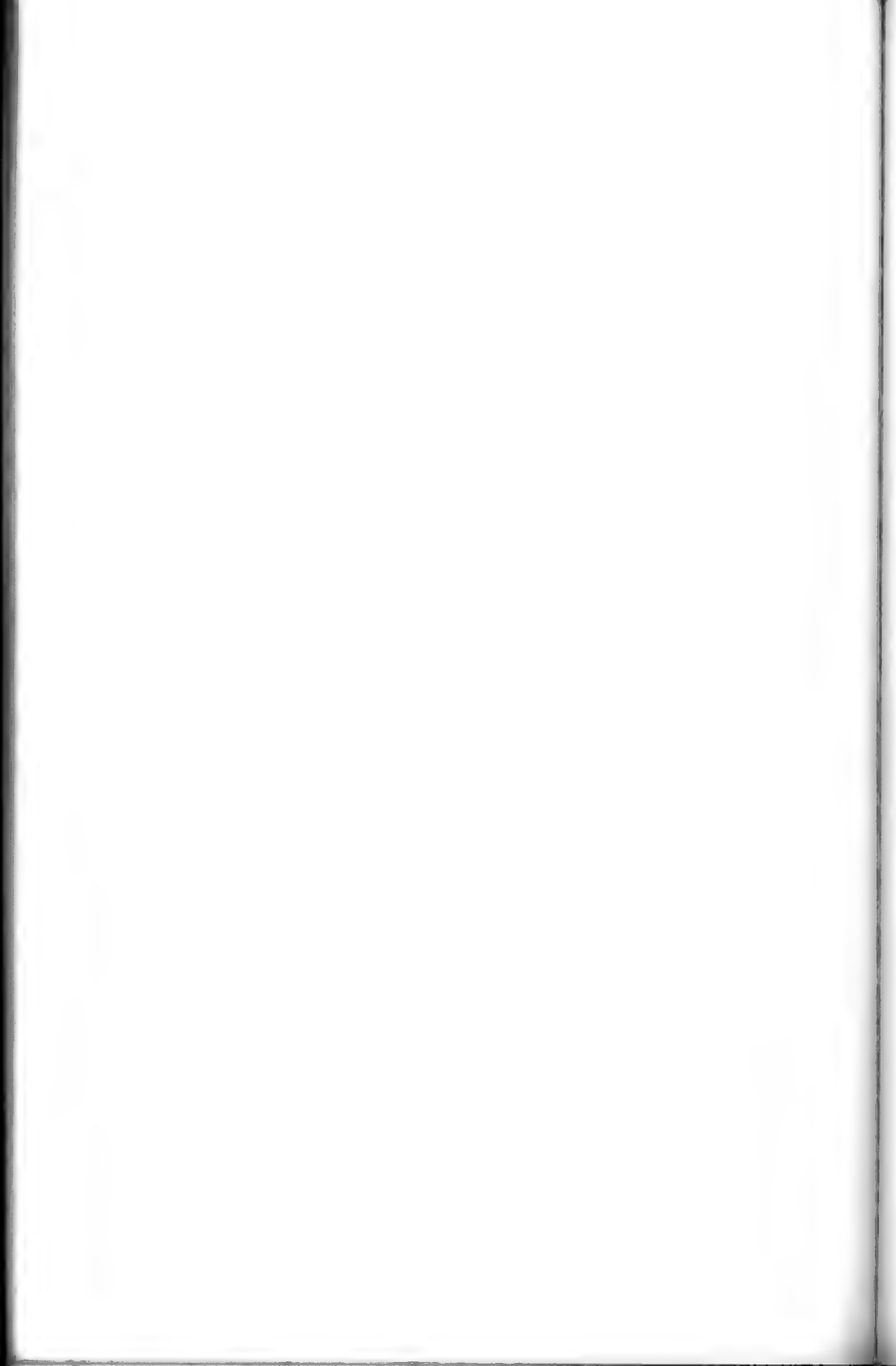
Synopsis

DRAWL allows you to draw a series of connected lines from point 1 to point 2 to point 3 . . . These points are specified as x, y pairs in the REM parameter statement which may be of any length, eg REM: "x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3, x4, y4, . . . xn, yn,".

DRAWA is similar to DRAWL but the data should be supplied in a character array of xy pairs. Points outside the display area are not plotted so lines may be broken by inserting an 'off screen' point in the array.

MOVEC uses the 5, 6, 7, 8 keys to move a cursor around the screen. The 'p' key causes the routine to exit with the current position of the cursor; the x, s and f keys allow single step, slow and fast cursor movement.

A BASIC drawing program is listing in **Listing 14.4**; this is for you to elaborate as you wish.



CHAPTER 15

Miscellaneous

Here are some tit-bits which are nice to know or think about but do not warrant a chapter to themselves.

BCD or Binary Coded Decimal

A form of number representation and arithmetic, believed to be of American origin and dubious parentage. It enabled a salesman to say to a prospective victim: “but our machine can do decimal arithmetic — you shouldn’t bother with one of theirs. Their’s can only do (nasty, complicated, difficult) binary”.

Each decimal digit can be represented by four bits with the values 8, 4, 2, 1 in 8421 BCD. (There is another form 4421 BCD). The Z80 chip will handle BCD arithmetic at two digits per byte if, after each addition or subtraction you insert a DAA operation (Decimal Arithmetic Adjust) and write a special number print routine.

I regard the presence of BCD within a machine as something best overlooked; however, many pieces of electronic equipment do make available BCD coded signals, four wires per decimal read out digit, so that they may be interfaced with computer systems.

Modifications

All I have been able to do, in this book, is point you in the proper direction. No book is ever going to solve all your problems for you, but by way of illustration I have included some code extras which I leave you to understand.

Listing 15.1

```
7610 DEMO1  CALL  OPARS
7615          CALL  PCALL
7620          CALL  FIDL1
7625          JP    SATTR+3
7630 FIDL1  LD     HL, (FARMO)
7635          LD     BC, 3
```

```
7640          ADD  HL,BC
7645          LD   DE,VFARO+8
7650          LDI
7655          RET
7660 DEMO2    CALL FCALL
7665          CALL FIDL2
7670          JP   SATTR+3
7675 FIDL2    LD   HL,(PARMO)
7680          LD   BC,8
7685          ADD  HL,BC
7690          LD   DE,VFARO
7695          CALL LDPR
7700          CALL LDPR
7705          CALL LDPR
7710          CALL LDPR
7715          CALL LDPR
7720          RET
7725 LDPR     LDI
7730          LD   BC,4
7735          ADD  HL,BC
7740          INC  DE
7745          RET
7750          END
```

DEMO1

This enters SATTR after the call of OPARS and PCALL. The REM statement it expects is:

```
REM k: 0, 0, 15, 7,
```

where k is an (integer) attribute and the constants are a tile region descriptor.

DEMO2

This also enters SATTR but its REM statement is:

```
REM a( ):
```

and the first five entries in a() are the tile descriptors and the required attribute. These must all be integers.

Both use fiddle subroutines. Note how simple they are, work out how they operate, and have fun doing your own.

Multiple entry

With a large suite of programs a very nasty state of affairs can occur:

Program A outputs to display 1
Program B outputs to display 2

There is a common subroutine C, deep in the depths, doing the actual display output.

A is outputting to the display when the display goes faulty and reports to C, which outputs an error message to the operator and waits for the display fault to be cleared.

Program B now outputs, using common subroutine C, and promptly fouls everything up something rotten unless C is specially written to take care of the problem.

The usual technique is first to estimate the number of multiple calls that can be running at the same time, add 50% (or more) and then set up that number of 'pages', perhaps using the IX register or its equivalent, for all the workspace needed for one entry. Each cell is then allocated a 'page' which is released when that call terminates. If no room is available the calling program must be informed so that it can wait or whatever until the call can be accepted.

Recursion — or flying the Ouzlum bird

Recursion is the calling of a subroutine by itself. This may happen by accident in large programs or be deliberate as a result of a quest for reduced code or otherwise. It almost always demands large amounts of stack space.

Ordinarily, the call of itself will destroy the workspaces and return address, so the subroutine must be deliberately designed to cope with this. In some ways the problem is similar to that of Multiple Entry but here the data is all stored on the stack for entry and a section of the stack is used for workspace as well. The basic technique is illustrated in **Figure 15.1**. You must ensure that the subroutine call on itself must be conditional and that the condition fails so the subroutine can exit and thread its way back to the outside world. If you do not the system, like the Ouzlum bird, will have a nasty accident.

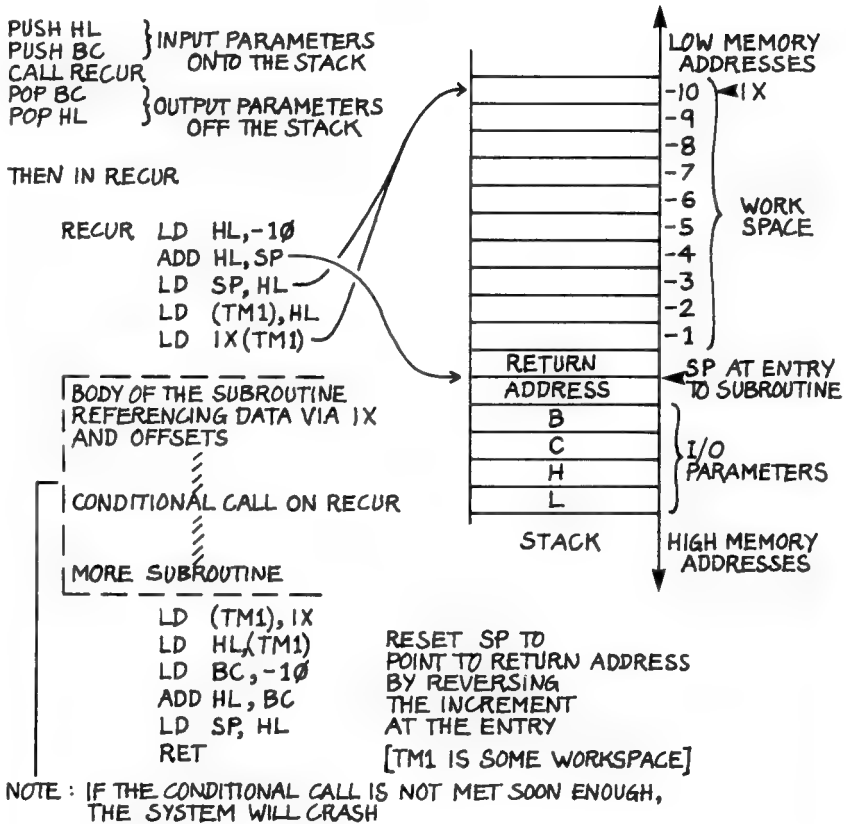
Notes on the machine code and the assembler

All the mnemonics for the operation codes are as standard. The 'hidden' operations, ie those for which the hardware operates but whose existence is not official, are used.

The directive, assembler driving, mnemonics which are used are:

DEFB defines one byte as a decimal number or ASCII character
DEFS defines a series of BYTES by using an ASCII string

Flowchart 15.1



DEFW	defines a word of two bytes
END	specifies the end of the machine code
EQU	requires a label, which is assigned the value in its address field. This is usually the address of a Spectrum system variable.
ORG	specifies the head address of the assembled code

A single byte value may be specified by a decimal value (0–255) or an ASCII character enclosed within double quotes. Note that LD A, “” loads A with the ASCII code for “”.

Code — do's and don'ts

Assemble the code to run at high memory addresses but leave enough room between the end of your code and the Spectrum UDG pointer location for the stack (see Spectrum manual Chapter 24 page 165) ie at the high address end of WORKSP. In general you will be alright if the end of your code is at about 63500 with a 48K machine.

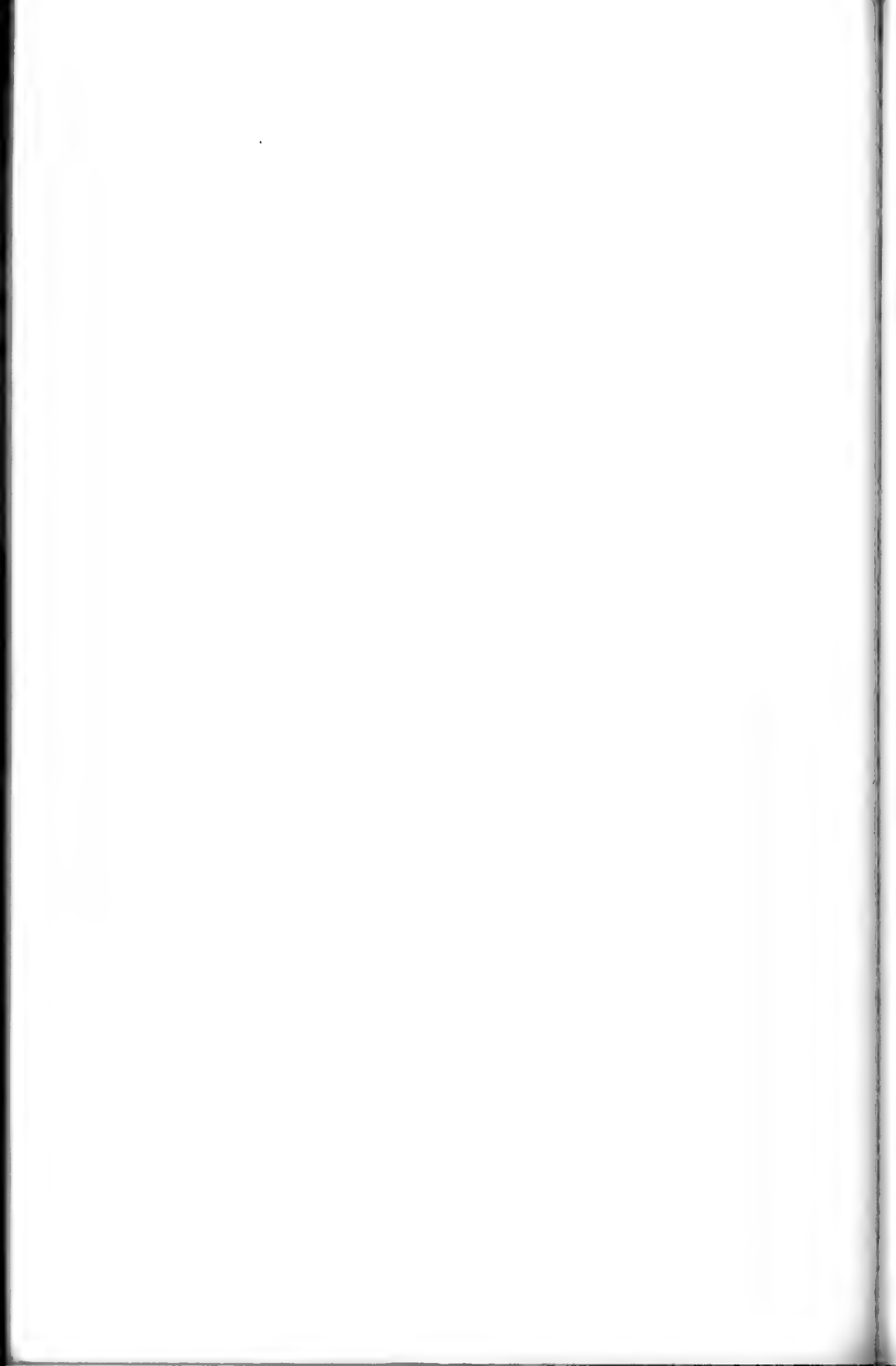
Never use absolute addresses (numerical values) within your code. Absolute addresses should only be used when addressing Spectrum variables, (as detailed in Chapter 25 pages 173–176 of the manual) or specific parts of the ROM.

Keep notes on all your programming, and your errors!

Make all names as mnemonic as you can.

Write straightforward programs whenever you can. (A program which works is better than none at all, and few drivers ever look under the bonnet.)

Have a very clear idea of what you want to do before you start.



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